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Educational Research Bulletin



VOLUME XXXII
JANUARY TO DECEMBER, 1953

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY
COLUMBUS . . . OHIO

R. H. ECKELBERRY, *Editor*
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PUBLISHED MONTHLY, EXCEPT DURING JUNE, JULY, AND
AUGUST, BY THE BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH,
OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, FOR THE TEACHERS OF OHIO

Bureau of Educational Research
DATE RECEIVED
DATE 10-8-70
FILE 957

Educational Research Bulletin

JANUARY 14, 1953

Vol. XXXII, No. 1

Teaching Modern Languages to the Elementary-School Child

By ERNEST E. ELLERT AND LOIS V. ELLERT

A good deal of discussion has been going on for and against the introduction of foreign-language teaching in the elementary schools of America. Let us look at what some psychologists and at least one well-known linguist have to say about language development in the child and society.

It is well to consider briefly the tremendous importance of language in human society—an importance of equal weight for all languages. John J. B. Morgan has said that “speech is the most important and most universal instrument of social intercourse that we have.”¹ Luella Cole, writing with Mr. Morgan, believes that “because of the tremendous development in means of communication between various peoples of the world, one language is coming to be more and more insufficient for the needs of even the ordinary man.”² Otto Klineberg elaborates on this idea when he says:

It is hardly possible to overestimate the part played by language in the development and control of social behavior. It represents what is specifically human in social life. . . . It serves as a cohesive force uniting human groups and setting them apart from others; as Sapir points out, the fact of common speech is an index of the social solidarity of a group. Much of the opposition between the in-group and the out-group reported for the most primitive as well as for the most complex societies may probably be explained by the fact that the groups cannot understand each other. It is no exaggeration to say that language is one of the fundamental facts of social life.³

Finally, to quote Mario Pei

The story of language is the story of human civilization.

¹ *Child Psychology*. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc., 1931. p. 272.

² *Psychology of Childhood and Adolescence*. New York: Rinehart and Company, 1947.

PP. 334-35.

³ *Social Psychology*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1940. pp. 49-50.

The study of language and languages has been described as fundamentally democratic, in contrast with the study of literature, which is essentially aristocratic. . . . Language, on the other hand, is something to which everybody contributes, by the mere fact that he speaks it. . . . The most fertile field for the co-operation of the entire community is language. . . . Therefore the study of language is a social science to the highest degree. Language is the tool and product of all of human society. . . . It is the indispensable vehicle of all human knowledge.⁴

In the light of these statements, what can be said against the study of language? The question rather seems to be a matter of what is the best age for introducing the formal study of language in the schools.

MUCH has been written on the development of language in the child—starting from a study of infant babblings and extending through all phases of childhood and adolescence, including adult vocabulary counts. Only a little of this vast amount of literature has any bearing on the subject of foreign-language learning. To quote Klineberg again:

. . . During the whole of the first year the infant makes use of a great multiplicity of sounds, many of which do not occur in the adult language. This large variety of sounds shows that any infant could with equal facility learn any human language, and that racial heredity is of no importance in this connection.⁵

William F. Bruce and Frank S. Freeman are among the psychologists who have studied this phase of development and have this to say:

The most significant discovery concerning the babbling stage, however, is that the infant's repertory of vocalizations is *wider in scope than the sounds made in any single language*. Thus in the baby's vocal play we hear sounds resembling German gutturals and French vowels, which he will drop as he learns gradually to restrict and refine his vocalizations to accord with the language of his American family and community.⁶

Since the infant is capable of such a variety of sounds, it might be argued that children ought to learn more than one language simultaneously from infancy on. In fact, there are undoubtedly many who would advocate just such a program.

⁴ *The Story of Language*. New York: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1949. pp. 188-89.
⁵ *Op. cit.*, p. 47.

⁶ *Development and Learning: the Psychology of Childhood and Youth in a Democratic Society*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942. p. 58.

After all, throughout Europe, and even in America in border areas, children do grow up speaking and understanding, sometimes even writing, two or three tongues with facility. What do studies reveal about the advisability of such bi- or tri-lingualism in the very young? Marian B. Breckenridge and E. Lee Vincent say,

Children who are exposed to *two or more languages in the learning years* (two to four years) are usually slower in the development of either language than they would be in the development of one language at a time. This is reasonable, since they must learn two or more names for every object and every action. After mastering the fundamental mechanics of each of the languages, however, these bilingual children have the advantage of more than one language and become truly bilingual because they can think in more than one language. The usual recommendation for learning more than one language is to expose very young children to one language only until they have mastered a working foundation in that one (perhaps three or four years of age), then introduce the second language.⁷

ACTUALLY several studies have been made on this subject and the consensus seems to be that when the child is exposed to more than one language in the home, confusion is apt to result, particularly if the parents sometimes speak one and sometimes another. Less confusion was noted if the mother consistently used one language while the father consistently used another. Very little confusion resulted, however, if the second language was learned outside the home situation and there were no emotional factors involved. For example, if both parents and all siblings regularly spoke German in the home while living in an English-speaking community, the child would readily learn both languages and yet seldom confuse the two, selecting the appropriate one as occasion demanded. Arthur Jersild says:

Throughout our own country and in the world at large, many children are called upon to adjust to two different languages. The problem of bilingualism is interesting, not only from the point of view of children who live in homes that use a foreign or unofficial language, but also, to a lesser extent, from the point of view of the educational problem as to when instruction in foreign languages might best be introduced in the curriculum. For a systematic inquiry into the subject, it would be

⁷ *Child Development: Physical and Psychological Growth through the School Years*. 2nd ed. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1950. p. 406.

necessary, of course, to take account of many factors. For one thing, the ways in which a child is called upon to adjust to two different languages may vary decidedly. In one situation, he may meet one language almost exclusively until he reaches school age and then may be called upon to acquire a new language. In another situation he may be confronted with two languages from the start. Here again there may be many variations; the two languages may be on an almost equal basis or one may predominate over the other in varying degrees, or one child may be called upon to use both languages, while another, under other circumstances, may be reared to speak in only one language but to understand when spoken to in another language. . . . Theoretically, if a child is called upon to acquire two different languages, he should make slower progress in each than he would make if he were learning only one. . . . It should be recognized that a child might be below standard in the use of each of two languages and still make a good showing if a scheme could be found for crediting him with his proficiency in both languages combined.⁸

John E. Anderson has much the same remark to make, and in addition he says,

In general, the studies of bilingualism show that a child who learns two languages simultaneously in early childhood does not acquire either language quite so well as he would have acquired a single language, but that if the two languages are considered together he learns more language.

If facility is to be acquired in *speaking* a foreign language, instruction should begin early.⁹

Mario Pei agrees in essence with the psychologists when he writes:

If there is one thing on which all schools are agreed, it is that the best way to learn languages is from birth, or as close to it as possible. . . . The ability of young children to imitate and reproduce sounds, words and phrases is unparalleled in later life, when habits have become set. . . . The child who grows up in a bilingual atmosphere retains his two or more "native" languages for life, and speaks, understands, reads and writes them with equal facility.¹⁰

He is of the opinion that after about the tenth year, this ease of learning is lost; and thereafter learning a second language becomes a chore and the language will always be looked upon as something "foreign." The farther one proceeds into adult-

⁸ *Child Psychology*. Revised ed. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1940. pp. 142-43.

⁹ *The Psychology of Development and Personal Adjustment*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1949. p. 169.

¹⁰ *Op. cit.*, p. 420.

hood, the more difficult it becomes to acquire a new language, regardless of method, material, or incentive provided.

FOR practical purposes, it must be admitted that it would be very difficult, if not impossible, to engender a true bilingualism in any great number of American children. This does not mean, however, that no attempt should be made to teach a second language early in life to children, or that we should be satisfied with our present exceedingly ineffective program of introducing such study in the adolescent years to a handful of mildly interested high-school or college students.

There is plenty of evidence that interest in learning a foreign language is much greater during the elementary-school years than later on. The high-school or college student has become primarily interested in learning for the sake of his chosen profession and can see little value in foreign-language study except for those rare instances where such study may be of actual value in a profession. Younger children, however, are more curious, and are interested in learning for the mere sake of learning. Language, their own and that of others, is fascinating. As Breckenridge and Vincent point out:

Another aspect of language fascinates eight- to ten-year-old children. They love codes and secret languages. "Double talk" characterizes this age as it does also adolescence where it serves to cement the sense of group solidarity. Any code for letters in which to write secret messages, or any pass word which serves to mark off a separate social group or gang is seized upon avidly.¹¹

And Ruth Strang writes, "Secret languages such as 'pig Latin' appear in this period [pre-adolescence]. This interest in secret language may be sublimated into an interest in the study of a foreign language . . . if it is introduced in such a way as to fit the children's level of maturity."¹² Elizabeth B. Hurlock likewise mentions the secret-language phase so prevalent in children and adds, "The beginning of the secret-language age comes around the eighth year and extends to approximately the fifteenth year, with the peak between the tenth and thirteenth years."¹³

These observations on interest in secret languages which can readily be extended to interest in a foreign language, coupled with Pei's belief that after the age of ten language learning

¹¹ *Op cit.*, pp. 403-404.

¹² *An Introduction to Child Study*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1951. p. 505.

¹³ *Child Development*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1942. p. 172.

becomes increasingly difficult, have led the writers to conclude that such study could most profitably be introduced no later than the eighth year, or the third grade of the elementary school. Prior to that the child is still acquiring a solid foundation in his native language and is largely preoccupied in developing the ability to read and write. This is the period when many European schools start their language-training programs with great effect. It is well known that once a second language is acquired, it is easier to master the third, and still easier to get a fourth. After about three years of study in a foreign language the children in these European schools begin the second foreign tongue. As a matter of fact, in many schools of France and Germany, more time has been devoted to the study of a foreign language by the time a child is eleven than has been spent on the study of his native language. This fact is well documented by statistics found in a study made by Norsworthy and Whitley.¹⁴

IT is not alone this interest in codes and secret languages, however, that makes the years prior to ten so suitable for language learning. It is the type of memory and mental faculties that a child possesses in these years that makes them an ideal age for foreign-language learning: To quote Norsworthy and Whitley,

Two factors which condition the recall of a fact are the depth of the impression, and the number of associations or cues which it has. When memory depends primarily on the first factor it is likely to be of the desultory type, whereas an emphasis on the second factor results in logical memory. The adult's tends to be of the logical type, while that of children is more of the desultory type. The memory for related ideas improves steadily up to thirteen or fourteen, so that a larger proportion of the associations in the child's mind is of the desultory sort than in the adult's mind. It seems almost impossible for an adult to hold in memory a fact when there is not much to hang it to, no relationships or reasons that will serve as cues, whereas such facts seem simply "to stick" in the minds of most children. This being true, it behooves the educator to take advantage of this tendency and to fix in children's minds certain more or less isolated facts, such as modern language vocabularies, equivalents in mathematics, names in geography, symbols in chemistry and

[Continued on page 27]

¹⁴ Norsworthy, Naomi, and Whitley, Mary Theodora. *The Psychology of Childhood*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1918. pp. 305 ff.

Terminal Programs in Public Junior Colleges

By GAIL SHANNON¹

WITH the progress of technology, increasing numbers of students attending junior colleges have expressed the need for types of training that were not found in the traditional "university-parallel" programs. University-parallel programs are those designed to duplicate in most respects the first two years of college or university for the student intending to transfer to another institution or taking the work as prerequisite to further professional training. Many junior colleges have responded to these needs by offering terminal programs of various sorts. Usually these are two-year programs with which the student plans to end his formal education.

The writer obtained data regarding the programs of public junior colleges from the catalogues of 302 of 334 institutions to which he sent requests for catalogues or bulletins in 1951. The phases of the study which were concerned with the terminal programs offered in these institutions will be the primary focus of this discussion.

An analysis of enrollments in the 302 schools based on figures published in the *Junior College Journal* indicated that 32 per cent of the schools had enrollments of less than 300, 41 per cent had enrollments of 301 to 999, while 27 per cent had 1,000 or more students.² Six schools, all in California, had enrollments exceeding ten thousand. These enrollment groups were used throughout the study for analysis of relation of size of school to the factor under consideration. When the variety of terminal curriculums offered was compared with the size of the school, it was found that junior colleges with enrollment below three hundred tended to offer only the conventional curriculums in business, industry, and homemaking. While there was some tendency for the middle group to offer more variety, it was mostly in the junior colleges with enrollment beyond one thousand that any program found in less than 5 per cent of the schools was offered.

¹ Adapted by Herbert F. Miller from the Doctor's dissertation of Gail Shannon entitled "An Analysis of the Programs of the Public Junior Colleges in the United States," 1951, on file in the library of Ohio State University.

² Colvert, C. C., and Bright, H. F. "Analysis of Junior College Growth," XXI (November, 1950), pp. 130-34.

A TOTAL of 212 different terminal curriculums, from accounting to woodworking and cabinetmaking, was listed by the 302 institutions. However, only secretarial training was offered in as many as 59 per cent of these institutions. Two other related curriculums—accounting and business—were each given by about 30 per cent of the schools. Other curriculums named in from 15 to 30 per cent of the institutions included agriculture, automotive mechanics, business administration, homemaking, merchandising, stenography, and radio technology. The preponderance of the commercial and business curriculums among the more frequently offered programs is evident. Furthermore, about 80 per cent of the 212 terminal programs are to be found individually in less than 5 per cent of the public junior colleges. Thus, although the complete list of programs is impressive and diversified, the number of schools offering a majority of the curriculums is still very small. These data prompt a question as to how adequately many of these institutions are meeting the needs of the student-age group in their communities.

Among the 212 terminal programs found in the public junior colleges of the United States, eight large classifications or fields emerged. These, in order of frequency, were: commerce, industry, domestic arts, transportation, communications, medical assistants, construction, and agriculture. In general, it was noted that colleges enrolling more than one thousand students gave more and more prominence to courses in the fields toward the end of the list given, and the colleges with fewer than three hundred students gave less and less. An analysis of the states whose public junior colleges did not offer programs in some of these fields revealed, for example, that half of them had no program in agriculture, although some of these were states in which agriculture would be considered a major industry. Only 14 schools were offering programs in television. In view of the rapid expansion of this industry and the apparent need for trained technicians, it would seem that many of these institutions, especially those in which programs in radio and electricity are already offered, should give training in this area.

Forty-five junior colleges made no mention of terminal curriculums in the catalogues examined: 26 of these enrolled less than three hundred students; 17, between three hundred and one thousand; and two, more than a thousand. It seems,

therefore, that a greater proportion of the large than of the small schools have experimented with this type of program. However, no data were on hand to indicate how many of these schools not offering terminal programs at the time of this study may have done so previously and discarded the plan.

For purposes of comparison, the numbers of programs were arbitrarily classified into groups: from 1 to 9, 10 to 19, 20 to 29, and 30 or more. Of the 257 schools, those offering programs in each class totaled 170, 56, 23, and 8, respectively. Of the 170 schools offering from 1 to 9 programs, 79 enrolled from three hundred to a thousand students; 64, less than three hundred; and 27, more than a thousand. Only one school with fewer than three hundred students offered twenty or more curriculums. Of the eight schools offering 30 or more programs, all were in California, and seven of them were in the largest enrollment group. Evidently, even many junior colleges enrolling more than three hundred have limited the number of terminal programs which they offer.

THE most frequently offered university-parallel curriculum was pre-medicine, found in 80 per cent of the colleges. Other curriculums offered by half or more of the public junior colleges were liberal arts, pre-law, elementary education, pre-nursing, pre-dentistry, business administration, home economics, and secondary education.

Comparison of the numbers of university-parallel programs offered in these junior colleges shows that while over half (56 per cent) of the schools offered from 1 to 9 terminal curriculums, only 20 per cent of them offered numbers of university-parallel curriculums in the same range. The mode in university-parallel curriculums was 44 per cent in the 10 to 19 range; only 18.5 per cent of the colleges offered terminal curriculums in this range. The junior colleges enrolling more than one thousand students were the only ones in which the terminal and university-parallel curriculums were approximately equal in number. In the other groups the university-parallel programs outnumbered the terminal programs.

A program called "general education," usually two years in length, is offered by 138 colleges. In this type of program the student has almost complete freedom in course selection, and there is little if any emphasis on vocational training. Like-

wise, 201 of the schools offered regularly scheduled programs in adult education, and 55 provided adult-education programs on demand. Most of these schools enrolled more than three hundred students. Allowing for duplications, it seems that over two-thirds of the public junior colleges made some provision for adult education.

NO ATTEMPT was made in this study to analyze the relationship of elective to required courses in these programs. However, an examination of the catalogues of these institutions gave the writer two general impressions: first, terminal curriculums tend to have fewer required courses than university-parallel curriculums, with the result that students in terminal programs are freer to elect courses; and second, most institutions strongly recommend that students spend the regular two-year period in completing a terminal program, even though the required work might be completed in less time.

The original purpose of junior colleges in the United States—offering the first two years of college or university work—left a very heavy imprint on the public junior college as of 1951. First, entrance requirements for all students are often conceived in relation to this purpose only; and second, 92 per cent of the public junior colleges were offering this type of program in greater variety in individual institutions than other types of programs. The fact that 212 different terminal programs were offered in 85 per cent of the public junior colleges in 1951, together with the other data presented in this discussion, strongly suggests that administrators in many junior colleges should alter their entrance requirements to provide more flexibility in program selection. Furthermore, careful analysis of the educational needs of persons of college age which are not being otherwise met should be made by junior-college administrations in their respective communities toward the end that deficiencies in terminal programs can be eliminated.

Statements made in this discussion concerning the variety of terminal programs in the public junior colleges of the United States should not be misinterpreted. Many of these programs are not available to a large group of students who could profit from them. This paper was not intended to describe a job well done; rather it was designed to offer a challenge—an indication of what has been done in a few cases—and to present possibilities for improvement which should be seriously considered.

Evaluating the Orientation Week Program

By WILLIAM S. GUTHRIE

INDIVIDUAL judgments concerning successes and failures of the events of Ohio State University Orientation Week are made every year but favorable and unfavorable comments do not always reach the attention of the Orientation Programs Committee, a group composed of four students, four faculty members, and six administrative officers. Thus it is one of the obligations of the Committee to conduct some sort of annual inquiry for the purpose of effecting needed improvements.¹

Sixty-two per cent of the new students participating in the 1951 Orientation Week program at Ohio State University took part in a student opinion poll surveying the thirty-two activities of the week.² The information gathered as the result of the poll, with due recognition of its value and limitations, assisted the Committee in planning the next year's program. The data supplemented other information available from project directors, faculty, and student leaders who took part in group meetings, and the Committee members themselves, all of whom surveyed the week's activities and made recommendations.

Responses to the questionnaire used in the student poll were made by 2,133 students, who were anonymous except for the identity established by sex, college, rank (Freshman or transfer student), and "rushing" status—fraternity rushing traditionally competes on campus with the Orientation Program for the time and attention of new Freshmen, and often wins. Actually, 3,416 new students took part in the week's activities.

The questionnaires were distributed in freshman orientation courses which are conducted in the five undergraduate colleges by the respective junior deans. A majority of all new Freshmen in all five undergraduate colleges completed the questionnaire during the opening week of classes.

¹ The importance of continuing study of program events has been one of the themes which has carried through each of the five annual Conferences of Orientation Week Directors held under Midwestern-university auspices: Ohio State University, 1948; Purdue University, 1949; University of Illinois, 1950; University of Michigan, 1951; and Indiana University, 1952.

² The project was a co-operative venture of the Orientation Week Committee, the junior deans in charge of freshman-survey courses where the questionnaire was presented, Mrs. Virginia Hoy of the Orientation Week office staff, and the I.B.M. office where card-punching and machine-tabulation took place.

THE poll sought information concerning the extent and kind of participation by students, and their judgments of the value and the efficiency of operation of various Orientation Week projects and events. Each student stated whether or not he took part in each of the thirty-two Orientation Week events. A summary of the total participation in each project follows. Some projects were for all students, some for men exclusively, others for women only. The percentages given here are based on the total number of students polled who were scheduled for the events:

All Orientation Week Events	Per Cent Participating
1. Group meetings with faculty and student leaders.....	85
2. President's Convocation at stadium.....	82
3. Physical examination.....	97
4. Chest X ray.....	96
5. Ohio State Psychological Examination.....	93
6. Wednesday night college meetings.....	57
7. Physical-education meeting for all women.....	88
8. Health-service and selective-service information meeting for all men.....	64
9. Registration for foreign students.....	1
10. Registration with Dean of Women for all women.....	99
11. Student-organizations hours.....	49
12. English Placement Tests.....	88
13. Mathematics Test.....	90
14. Sunday afternoon Convocation.....	26
15. Ohio State movie and slides.....	41
16. Thursday night Fun Festival at stadium.....	60
17. Language Placement Tests.....	11
18. Chemistry Placement Test.....	38
19. Music entrance examination for music students.....	1
20. Conference for home-economics majors.....	82
21. Engineering Drawing 401 conference for engineers.....	81
22. Speech and hearing tests for education students.....	83
23. Personal conference with faculty and student leaders.....	10
24. Ohio Staters bus tour of campus.....	10
25. Hygiene Placement Test for men.....	11
26. Conferences on sorority education for women.....	24
27. Musical try-outs.....	6
28. Friday night receptions by churches.....	17
29. Panhellenic parties for all women.....	43
30. Tuesday night style show for all women.....	34
31. Friday night football rally.....	53
32. Saturday night Kickoff Dance.....	29

PARTICIPATION varies by colleges, sexes, and rank of students. Full tables are available for local study and use, from which some parts are presented here for illustration. In almost every project students in the College of Commerce participated less than students in any of the other undergraduate colleges. Women participated to a greater extent than men. In projects for which both men and women were sched-

uled, some differences between the percentages participating were outstanding:

SELECTED EVENTS	PER CENT PARTICIPATING	
	Women	Men
Student-organization hours	73	37
Church receptions	29	10
Freshman Fun Festival	72	53
College meetings	67	51
President's Convocation	88	79

The differences in the percentages of men and women participating are partially explained by the fact that, while sorority rushing was scheduled to take place two weeks after Orientation Week, fraternity rushing, in which 60 per cent of the men polled took part, coincided with it. This seems to make no difference in attendance at the various required tests, probably because fraternities advised the men being rushed that these must be scheduled. However, with the exception of the football rally and the Kickoff Dance, the men who were not being rushed had a much better record of participation in the non-testing projects. The participation of the two groups of freshman men in selected projects is shown by the following percentages:

SELECTED EVENTS	PER CENT PARTICIPATING	
	Rushing Men	Non-rushing Men
O.S.U. movies and slides	28	55
President's Convocation	53	80
College meetings	41	66
Sunday Convocation	18	33
Student-organization hours	31	45
Freshman Fun Festival	49	60

TO SECURE a qualitative judgment of the individual projects of Orientation Week, the students were instructed in the Freshman survey courses, where the poll took place, to rate each project according to their judgment of the presentation, its "popularity" rating with students. A chance to write in comments regarding each of the 32 items was provided, and almost half of the students wrote in comments, favorable or otherwise, which were suggestive to project directors as they analyzed reports pertinent to their work.

These ratings were tabulated for the entire student group. The general summary of students' ratings is of interest to the persons arranging for Orientation Week; but since no significant trends are apparent among the percentages, the table is not

included here. Other tabulations by College groups, by sex, by rank (Freshmen and transfer students), and by rushing and non-rushing status for men show differences, but they are not of sufficient significance to be included in this report.

The students were asked to name the three best-liked projects of Orientation Week and also any particular "trouble spot." They were asked not to base their favorable or unfavorable ratings on personal likes or dislikes of the particular activity, but rather on the presentation, organization, and administration of the project itself. We have insufficient basis for percentages or comparisons with these figures because a great many students did not indicate their choices. As a matter of interest, however, the projects mentioned most favorably were in order of preference: Thursday night Fun Festival at the stadium, Friday night football rally, Wednesday night college meetings, Ohio State movie and slides, group meetings with faculty and student leaders, and President's Convocation at the stadium. Projects that were most frequently named "trouble spots" were: mathematics test, Ohio State Psychological Examination, physical examination, and Saturday night Kickoff Dance.

Many of the project directors and committeemen checked the separate tables. Some read the original questionnaires to find students' opinions of their own projects. This was the self-improvement use for which the questionnaires were intended in the beginning.

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The Problems of Probation and Honor Students

By WILLIAM H. BROWN

THE Mooney Problem Check List¹ was used in this study to determine whether or not significant differences existed between probation students and honor students in the problems confronting them. The study of the problems of students at North Carolina College at Durham was significant because 461 students, or 37 per cent, of all undergraduates in the College were probation students, while 24 per cent of all undergraduates were on the honor roll. Moreover, 84 per cent

¹ By Ross L. Mooney. New York: Psychological Corporation, 1950.

of the probation students, but only 45 per cent of the honor students, were enrolled in the freshman and sophomore classes. Since all probation students are potential dropouts, the faculty and administration of the college were interested in discovering to what extent factors other than mental ability were influencing the academic success of students.

It is known that high mental ability does not necessarily guarantee academic success in college since some students who are no better than average in aptitude for college work earn academic records that are above average and many intellectually superior students have inferior academic records. Such inconsistencies are often traceable to certain attitudes, problems, habits, and activities which influence scholarship. It was assumed, therefore, that many problems relating to the academic adjustment of students may be imposed by a college environment, as the students conceive it; and that a faculty and administrative officers, working together, can modify either the college environment or the student's conception of it in the interest of reducing the impact of the student's problems on his academic adjustment.

The subjects used in the study were 154 probation students and an equal number of honor students. The probation students were selected from a list of students whose averages for the second quarter of 1951 were less than 1.0 grade-point. The honor students were selected from the honor roll for the same quarter. Percentage-wise, the separate samples conformed roughly to the distribution of probation and honor students by classes in the total undergraduate enrollment. The ranges in cumulative academic averages were .6-1.0 and 1.1-3.0 for probation and honor students respectively, with medians at .87 and 1.7.

The total number of problems checked by probation students ranged from 6 to 195, and the mean for this group was 58.2 problems. The range for honor students was from 4 to 175, with a mean at 49.4 problems per student. The difference between these means was significant at the one-per cent level, a fact which invited further analysis of the data by categories.

Table I gives the mean number of problems of probation and honor students within each category of the Mooney Problem Check List. The categories are arranged in the approximate rank order of the means of each group of students. The

order of problem areas suggests both the prevalence of problems and a logical order in which the college might attack areas. Problems relating to the student's adjustment to college and to curriculum and teaching seem to merit first attention. Psychological relations, social-recreational activities, and health appear to be next in order of importance. It can be seen from the table that in each category the mean number of problems for probation students was either equal to or in excess of the mean for honor students. In two categories, personal-psychological relations and adjustment to college work, the means for probation students were significantly higher than those for honor students.

TABLE I
AVERAGE NUMBER OF PROBLEMS OF PROBATION STUDENTS
AND HONOR STUDENTS BY CATEGORIES

Problem Categories	Probation Students	Honor Students	t_m
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Adjustment to College	9.6	7.0	4.19*
Curriculum and Teaching	6.5	5.8	1.42
Social and Recreational Activities	7.3	6.4	2.25
Personal-Psychological Relations	6.9	4.9	4.65*
Health and Physical Development	5.2	4.3	2.06
Future—Vocational and Educational	4.5	4.0	1.35
Finances, Living, and Employment	4.3	4.3	0.00
Courtship, Sex, Marriage	4.1	3.9	.54
Social-Psychological Relations	4.9	4.5	2.17
Morals and Religion	3.3	3.3	0.00
Home and Family	1.7	2.3	2.30
Mean number of problems	58.2	49.4	2.51*

* Indicates that difference between means is statistically significant at or below the 1-per cent level.

Through item analyses, an effort was made to identify specific problems which the probation students marked more often than the honor students. On the following eight problems the count was significantly higher for probation students: getting low marks, fearing failure in college, not knowing how to study effectively, being forced to take uninteresting courses, obtaining marks that do not measure ability fairly, not taking things seriously enough, failing in many efforts, and not attaining goals.

The item analysis revealed 122 different problems that were common to 20 per cent or more of the entire sample group. The first five areas in terms of prevalence of common problems were personal-psychological relations (19 problems), adjustment to college work (18 problems), social-recreational

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EDITORIAL COMMENT

Cadet Teaching at Indianapolis

INDIANAPOLIS is one of the school systems that has most recently begun a program of cadet teaching. The plan was initiated in the spring of 1952 and is being expanded this year. Students in the program begin by observing. They study classroom routines, methods of teaching, the administration of tests, and so on. They observe the behavior of children on the playground and elsewhere about the school. From observation they move into participation. They check papers, prepare materials, give individual help to children, read stories to the class, use flash cards, lead current-events discussion, and so on.

Such a program properly directed should have several desirable consequences. It should interest some high-school students in teaching as a career and in this way help provide a future supply of teachers. As the reverse of this, it should help guide some persons out of teaching—persons who do not have the qualities that would make them happy and successful in the profession.

Nor are the benefits of such a program confined to getting more of the right people into, and keeping more of the wrong people out of, teaching. Such a plan should make for greater effectiveness of the college program of teacher education. A student in a teachers' college who has been a cadet teacher has gotten the "feel" of the teacher's job. He has chosen his college course on the basis of firsthand experience. Moreover, because of this experience, he is in a better position to profit from his college work than he would have been without it.

The belief that experience as a cadet teacher would enable the student to profit more from his college experience is contrary to one which seems to be increasing in popularity. According to this latter view, the proper way to prepare a teacher is to give him professional training, including experience as a student teacher, only after he has completed his general education. This view seems to us to rest on a misunderstanding of the educative process and a consequent erroneous conception of the relation between general and professional education. This is not to say that it is impossible to develop a good teacher by the "layer-

[Continued on page 28]



READINGS



Books to Read

MAGUIRE, FREDERICK W., and SPONG, RICHARD M. *Journalism and the Student Publication*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951. vii+431 pp.

Educators and journalists are becoming increasingly aware of the need for greater emphasis on the mass media of communication in the high-school and junior-college classroom. Many are convinced that the student, armed with a clearer understanding of the mechanics and the rôle of these media, particularly our newspapers, will be better fortified to grapple with the complex problems of our times.

The authors, drawing upon years of experience in journalism and teaching, approach their task from such a viewpoint. Maguire, associate professor of journalism at Ohio State University, spent more than twenty years as a newspaper editor, writer, and publicist. Spong, formerly on the faculty at Michigan State College and a newspaperman, is associated with Editorial Research Reports in Washington, D. C.

Actually, Maguire and Spong have set themselves three tasks in this textbook: to deal with the fundamentals of journalism, to provide a practical guide for the publication of student newspapers and yearbooks, and to consider the ever important question of the rôle of the mass media in a democracy. All but four of the twenty-three chapters provide step-by-step procedures on producing a newspaper, from the organization of a student staff, through the processes of gathering and writing the news and features, writing editorials and handling illustrations, the editing and make-up functions, to the business problems of advertising and circulation. A separate chapter is devoted to the special problems of putting together a yearbook. The other chapters deal with the individual functions of staff members on a newspaper, building a career in journalism, and the newspaper as a social force. Each of the chapters on the "how to" phases is generously illustrated with examples taken from professional newspapers. Each chapter also carries a set of suggested individual and class exercises.

The authors reserve for the final chapter, "Reading a Newspaper," the important question of the rôle of the press. Here is emphasized not only the responsibility of the newspaper to society but the responsibility of the reader. Some helpful hints are offered the student in an effort to develop proper reading habits. Essentially the student is cautioned to assume the same critical—not cynical—attitude toward what he reads in the newspaper that he would toward any other printed matter, to evaluate news in terms of the source of information, to distinguish between fact and opinion, and to appreciate the limitations and obstacles under which newspapers are produced. One would wish that this chapter had been developed into a full section of the book, but the material is none the less welcome, and long overdue in a book designed for secondary schools.

The book should prove particularly useful to advisers and staff members of student publications and equally useful in a basic course in journalism.

BEN YABLONKY
New York University

SHANE, HAROLD G., AND McSWAIN, E. T. *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1951. xiv+477 pp.

As the title of this volume suggests, there are two major topics with which the authors are concerned. The first of these is the elementary-school curriculum and the second is evaluation. The authors deal in a rather general way with such aspects of elementary education as values, the nature of learning, the nature of evaluation, value conflicts in our culture, several aspects of the curriculum, special fields and services, school organization, school leadership, and the rôle of the teacher.

In describing and suggesting ways of evaluating the many aspects of the elementary-school curriculum, the authors have made a useful contribution to the literature of elementary education. The book provides a general reference for many subjects of importance in this field.

In the opinion of the writer, the following criticisms might be made of the book. First, the attempt is made to cover a very great range of subjects, some of which appear to have only peripheral relationship to evaluation and the elementary-school curriculum, with the result that some of the subjects are treated superficially. Second, in the treatment of two major topics within this single book, the authors have failed to make a clear presentation of either topic. Third, the style of writing occasionally becomes burdened with "pedaguese."

Particularly praiseworthy are those sections of the book dealing with the nature of evaluation and with the application of evaluation to the solution of problems commonly encountered in the elementary schools. An annotated list of evaluative instruments of all kinds is included in the appendix, along with a well-selected and annotated list of references on evaluation. This feature alone would recommend the book as a reference in evaluation.

VICTOR W. DOHERTY
Cincinnati Public Schools

DURING, INGEMAR, editor. *The Swedish School-Reform 1950*. Uppsala, Sweden: Appelbergs Publishing Company, 1951. 171 pp.

This pamphlet is, as its title suggests, a study of the educational legislation passed by the Swedish Parliament in 1950. It constitutes a short summary, however, for the original bill comprised some six hundred pages. The author's intent is not only to explore the possible future of Swedish education under this new legislation but to provide an overview of the school system as it now exists.

It is significant that reform legislation in Sweden, a country with an established church as well as a humanistic educational tradition, should commit the school authorities to a program of educational experimentation. This reform bill implements planning, not a finished plan. But perhaps experimentation is inevitable, for shot through Swedish education are the same dilemmas and antinomies as well as the same conflicting currents that characterize American education; for example, curriculum problems; organizational difficulties; when, where, and how to effect articulation. At the heart of the debate in Sweden is the problem identical in its essential quality the world over: how far up the educational ladder, for what number of students, to what purpose?

For the student of comparative education the usefulness of this pamphlet

is enhanced by a glossary of technical educational terms, educational diagrams, statistics, and a short series of photographs suggesting that American school architecture leaves something to be desired.

The people of Sweden have long been known for their admirable "middle way" approach to the explosive economic, political, and religious questions that have so long beset the world of Western man. It is difficult to leave this study without further admiration for the levelheaded reasonableness they bring to the problems of education as well.

LLOYD P. WILLIAMS

WELLS, HARRINGTON. *Secondary Science Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952. xii+367 pp.

This book presents evidence to show that science teaching on the secondary level is becoming increasingly aware of its responsibility to teach for greater social awareness and general science understandings, particularly for the vast majority of students who will never be professional scientists.

Suggested units of study in general science, general biology, social biology, botany, zoology, chemistry, and physics comprise a major portion of the book. These units include many items which are directed at increasing basic awareness of science in everyday living for the many students who will end their formal education at the high-school level. The prospective and experienced science teacher will find the course outlines suggestive and helpful in planning his own particular class programs.

Repeatedly throughout the book attention is directed at philosophical, sociological, and psychological factors which should be considered when selecting content and method for use in science teaching. Truly the modern high-school science teacher of today is more than a distributor of facts needed to pass college entrance boards.

Science teachers concerned with improving their evaluation program will be interested in the fourteen non-standardized instruments of diagnostic measurement presented on pages 264-75. Part II should be of particular value to the beginning science teacher interested in building up files of enriching teaching materials. Sections on audio-visual materials, equipment and supplies, useful magazines, and a section on pamphlets, pictures, and posters list sources from which free and low-cost materials can be obtained.

H. L. COON

BERRIEN, F. K. *Practical Psychology*. Revised ed. New York: Macmillan Company, 1952. xv+640 pp.

This revision of Berrien's book involves no drastic changes because the basic principles themselves have not changed greatly in recent years. However, there is quite a bit resulting from what psychology learned in the war, and an increasing amount of research in applied psychology has been bearing fruit. The book, to some extent, reflects the increased social orientation of psychologists.

The discussion starts out with adjustment problems such as how to study and mental health. The longest treatment is devoted to applications to industry, including employment and industrial efficiency. Advertising is the next division, with some emphasis on recent efforts to study the consumer. Applications to crime are then discussed, including psychological causes, therapy,

errors in testimony, and methods of crime detection. Finally come "personal problems," mainly vocational guidance and speaking and writing. The book contains a lot of illustrative material, is pretty well documented, and has adequate tables and graphs. It is aimed at the student presumably in the second course.

HAROLD E. BURTT

BIGELOW, KARL W., editor. *Cultural Groups and Human Relations*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. viii+214 pp.

This volume consists of the twelve lectures delivered before the Conference on Educational Problems of Special Cultural Groups sponsored by Teachers College, Columbia University, in co-operation with the Institute of Education of the University of London, and the Conference of State Directors of Negro Education in the United States. The center of interest of the approximately eighty educators attending the conference was the education either of Negroes in the United States or of non-Europeans in Africa and the West Indies.

Each lecture was delivered by a different individual. Three of the lectures deal with the findings of sociology, psychology, and anthropology relevant to intercultural relations. The impact of intergroup relations upon international relations, colonial status, and domestic problems constitutes the subject-matter of three lectures. Two of the lectures outline the social, political, and economic conditions in the Sudan and in the Union of South Africa out of which the present educational problems, purposes, and plans in those countries have emerged. In the final lecture included in the book, Anna Eleanor Roosevelt describes the process by which the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was drafted in the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations.

All of the lectures are of high quality. It is to be regretted, however, that the book does not include the full reports of the several committees composing the conference.

ROBERT E. JEWETT

RATHBUN, KENNETH C. "Working Your Way through College." Richmond, Virginia: Cavalier Publishing Company, 1951. iv+55 pp.

As an undergraduate at the University of Virginia, Kenneth C. Rathbun earned approximately one-third of his college expenses, received academic athletic scholarships to the extent of 41 per cent, and academic scholarships for another 14 per cent, of his four-year total college income. Ten years later he has written a how-to-do-it booklet called "Working Your Way through College." A possible subtitle might be: I did it; you can too.

The author presents a series of brief case histories of those who have largely financed themselves while in college. He discusses scholarships, loans, prizes, jobs requiring skill, jobs not requiring skill, sales opportunities, rentals, seasonal opportunities, and vacation work. Government aid, assistance from the military, and international study grants are also touched upon.

Mr. Rathbun takes a folksy approach to his subject. Autobiographical allusions are frequent, and having done with his major premise by page 40, he devotes the rest of his space to such topics as How to Make Good Grades (3 pages of such indisputable warnings as "If you move your lips when reading



silently, your teacher will probably caution you against this," page 41), time-budgeting, shopping, bull sessions, clubs, moods, and "creative thought," finishing off with "two cents' worth of philosophy."

A doubtful addition is the reprinting inside the front cover of Tyson's ten items on "How To Stay in College." (Sample: If you must sleep [in class] arrange to be called at the end of the hour.) The connection between such bits of whimsy and the topic of real concern which the author then purports to treat is not immediately obvious to this reviewer.

The book appears too thin to make a contribution to college students. It might possibly serve the purpose of giving reassurance to high-school students who anticipate the necessity of self-support. If they first survey the imposing list of the author's undergraduate accomplishments printed inside the back cover, they may read the entire testimonial with fervor. What they may do with the advice offered inside the front cover is another matter.

KATHRYN L. HOPWOOD

GANS, ROMA; STENDLER, CELIA; and ALMY, MILLIE. *Teaching Young Children*. New York: World Book Company, 1952. x+454 pp.

This is a good book. Not one filled with the tricks of teaching but one based on the idea that "the teacher of young children may or may not be an artist in painting, drama, music, or the dance; but she should be an artist in her sensitivity to the developing powers of the children with whom she works" (page 312). The book offers a challenge to be that kind of teacher. It opens with a "closer look" at children in the nursery school, kindergarten, and first three grades. There is a sound and unbiased evaluation of the kinds of curricula found in schools for young children today. The section on the broad and varied experiences which children should have as readers, speakers, writers, listeners, social scientists, scientists, mathematicians, artists, musicians, and at play is a skillful interweaving of modern psychology of learning and good school practices, with the ever present theme that "what we should emphasize in teaching children is a way of thinking and acting toward people based on respect for one's fellow men" (page 404). The parts dealing with school organization and home and school relationships are stimulating and helpful. Students in preparation for teaching and the experienced teacher who wants to re-evaluate her work will find this book worth while. Administrators will find much in it to improve their understanding of the teaching of young children.

BLANCHE VERBECK

HYDE, WILLIAM DEWITT. *The Five Great Philosophies of Life*. 3rd ed. New York: Macmillan Company, 1950. xii+296 pp.

This printing is identical in paging and wording with the second edition as published in 1911. There have been added six full-page illustrations: "The Two Natures in Man" (sculpture by G. G. Barnard), "Dionysius and the Maenads" (Greek vase), "Diogenes" (painting by Parmigiano), "Philosophy" (painting by Puvis de Chavannes), "The Ancient of Days" (drawing by William Blake), "St. Francis Preaching to the Birds" (painting by Giotto).

As the wording is identical with that of the earlier edition, there is, of course, no reference to the illustrations now inserted, and their relevance is too general to be very significant. It can only be with a bit of humor that Diogenes is taken to represent Stoicism, and the point of emphasizing the

story of Diogenes Laërtius about Plato's having defined man as a featherless biped is a bit blunt at least. Nor is the preaching of St. Francis to the birds an adequate representation of Christian love.

Inconsistencies are found in Epicureanism, defects in Stoicism, error in Platonism, and limitations in Aristotelianism. But the apparent weaknesses in Christianity are not really Christian. Is this philosophy or propaganda?

ALBERT E. AVEY

MALM, MARGUERITE, and JAMISON, OLIS G. *Adolescence*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952. viii+512 pp.

Books on adolescence, adjustment, and mental hygiene have become increasingly stereotyped in the past fifteen or twenty years. Here is one which is different. It is written for teachers and other adults who are preparing themselves for the responsibility of guiding adolescents to maturity. The emphasis is positive rather than preventive or remedial. The book discusses what the adolescent is like, of what his world consists, and what the aspects of his adjustment are, physically, heterosexually, socially, emotionally, vocationally, and from the viewpoint of mental hygiene.

Adolescence makes practical down-to-earth suggestions about how the home, the school, and the community can aid adolescents to realize their potentialities. It does not preach—it presents results of competent researches on a wide variety of phases of adolescent experiences in our culture. It neither sugar-coats the material nor offers "bait" to lure the reader to complete the book. It does not attempt to frighten or threaten. In fact, it advises restraint in making application of general findings to particular adolescents or situations. It presents a thoroughly consistent point of view, briefly, interestingly, with sound professional research data to support it.

Some readers may regret that the age group under consideration could not have included the college age. On second thought, however, he will realize that the limitation to grades seven through twelve was a wise one, and adds to the clarity of the presentation.

A word about the discussion questions and topics, the bibliography, and the visual aids suggested is appropriate. The authors are to be commended for the freshness and soundness of their selection of these materials. It would be difficult to improve on their choices.

This book should have a wide sale in teacher-training institutions and in psychological departments interested in preparing school psychologists, parent-child training experts, and psychoclinicians. The book is written in technical language which is not too difficult for its use in parent study groups, although it is far from being written at the popular level of texts usually recommended for such organizations.

EMILY STOGDILL

MILLER, VAN, and SPALDING, WILLARD B. *The Public Administration of American Schools*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1952. xvi+606 pp.

This volume is a genuine contribution to the literature in educational administration. The twenty-six chapters are divided into three major parts: public education in our American culture, the community task of school administration, and the professional job of educational administration. Part II

is more like other books in the field, but Parts I and III have much about them that is fresh and needed. For instance, the school is shown to have a rôle in cultural improvement, the extra-legal control of public education is clearly recognized, and the necessary function of status leaders is depicted. In fact, Part III represents one of the few treatments which attempt to enunciate a theory of administration.

The book has some aspects which may not be so praiseworthy. Some sections, supply management and finance (CHAPS. 16 and 17), for instance, appear sketchy, which is perhaps inevitable in a book of this general nature. Treatment of the federal-aid problem seems to ignore some of the real issues such as differential in educational load and in economic ability and mobility of population.

Even so, the merits of the book far outweigh any reservations raised. The volume should have wide use as a beginning or basic textbook in the field and as a reference for the man on the job.

ROALD F. CAMPBELL

STICKLER, W. HUGH. *Organization and Administration of General Education*. Dubuque, Iowa: W. C. Brown Company, 1951. viii+431 pp.

The introduction by Robert C. Pace states that sufficient discussion in general education has taken place about the function to make it proper to devote this volume to structure, that is, organization and administration. Three general structures are noted: modifying liberal arts, interdepartmental arrangements, and an independent organization with separate dean and staff. There follow presentations of different approaches in twenty-two colleges. A listing of persistent problems in general education concludes the material in the book.

The strength of the book lies in the variety of presentations. Its weakness is that the articles do not adhere to organization and administration but wander off into histories, pioneering, listing of general purposes, and apologies. The chapters by Chicago and Harvard, although shortest, stand out because of their devotion to the subject of the book: the organization and administration of general education.

JOHN HAWKES GREEN

PUNKE, HAROLD H. *Community Uses of Public School Facilities*. New York: King's Crown Press, 1951. 247 pp.

This publication presents a detailed analysis of court rulings regarding community uses of school facilities. Typical chapter headings are "Religious and Parochial Uses of Public School Facilities," "Commercial Uses of Public School Facilities," and "Cultural and Entertainment Uses of Public School Facilities." Each chapter contains in brief summary the legal principles which have guided the courts in their decisions. The study purports to include "all cases on the subject which have come before the nation's higher state and federal courts" (page 1). The final chapter is an analysis and summary of the study as a whole. The author presents in this chapter what he considers the important social implications of the study.

The author achieves quite well his primary purpose of presenting in relatively clear and non-technical language the important common-law principles for effective administration of public-school facilities—principles which are

not covered by specific statutes but which are the result of court rulings. As a reference for school administrators and board members, the volume should be of value. According to the author, it should also be useful for "recreation directors, sociologists, and public welfare workers, as well as persons interested in community organization and public administration generally" (Preface).

ROBERT E. HUBBARD

JACOBSON, PAUL B., editor. *The American Secondary School*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. viii+458 pp.

This book is designed as an introduction to the field of secondary education for prospective teachers. The eighteen chapters written by ten different authors present in broad outline many important concepts and facets of secondary education, and are well documented. The text was developed from a background based on "... the developmental task of adolescents and ... the social foundations of education" (page v). This approach to a career in secondary education is very significant.

The chapter "Making the High School Free" demonstrates well the existing inequalities in educational opportunity and the hidden costs of education, but offers little that is constructive. The chapter on evaluation treats the objective-testing aspects of education rather completely, but fails to give an adequate presentation of the total area of evaluation. Since education as a career is emphasized, it is unfortunate that the authors did not place more emphasis on the rôle of the teacher as a democratic participant in the school and community program.

Prospective teachers who are introduced to the field of secondary education through this textbook will have the opportunity to start with a broad understanding of the entire area, an awareness of the significant forces which determine the character of secondary education, and an understanding of the rôle they will have to play as the teachers of tomorrow. A. E. WOHLERS

LOEWY, HERTA. *The Retarded Child*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951. 160 pp.

Miss Loewy is trying to describe to teachers and parents her techniques in the education and training of a child with a mental defect. In defining this type of child she states that "this type of retardation covers the child whose brain is sound and without any injury, but where a connexion from the brain is injured" (page 14). She expresses the point of view that it is possible to train such a child by shifting "the main source of action" from the side which is damaged over to the uninjured side. There is no reference made in the book to the neurological problems involved in arriving at this diagnosis.

Many of the techniques, procedures, and materials which are described would be very helpful to a teacher or parent working with a mentally handicapped child. The difficulty with the book, as I see it, is that so many of the statements are not clear. The one quoted is an example. For instance, in one place Miss Loewy makes the statement that the child with this type of defect "... has even greater thought activity than has the normal." She gives no evidence to support this point of view. In another place she makes this comment: "... talk of arrested development. But never, never should we talk of blocked development" (page 154). I believe that there are far too many

instances of statements which would confuse rather than help teachers and parents. It should be kept in mind that Miss Loewy has been trained and is working in a different cultural pattern from ours, so that her concepts and vocabulary in psychological terms may well be different.

WILDA ROSEBROOK

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION.
Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1951. x+100 pp.

The central theme of this book is that the public schools can and should teach moral and spiritual values without resorting to supernatural sanctions. The Commission, in a manner free of dogmatism, enumerates the values on which they believe the American people to be agreed. The book contains the outline of a program for the teaching of these values in which the Commission members recommend that the values should permeate the entire educational process.

Where a conflict of values occurs, the authors advocate the application of a morality of consequences to resolve the conflict. While the report of the Commission recognizes a number of sanctions for moral and spiritual values, the emphasis is placed upon stimulating the pupil to a reflective consideration of the meanings of specific values and the consequences of their acceptance.

The book is written in a clear, concise, and readable style. The position taken by the authors is consistent and forthright.

ROBERT E. JEWETT

NEW YORK STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT AND THE BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK. *Vocational Education in the New York City Schools: Report of a Co-operative Study.* (March 15, 1951.) Part I, xvi+220 pp.; Part II, iv+pp. 223-445.

This is a very comprehensive report (445 pages) on a complicated subject. It is set in the largest school system in the world. Although the focus is vocational education, the investigators found it necessary to discuss everything from budget to personal guidance and include experience elsewhere to show the subject in proper perspective.

At the request in 1948 of the New York City Board of Education the New York State Commissioner of Education was invited to make a study of the New York City vocational-training classes. With the assistance of several outside consultants and through the co-operation of hundreds of members of both the state and city educational organizations the study was concluded early in 1951.

It should be of primary interest to anyone involved in vocational education. For the general reader the greatest value is probably the insight it gives as to how a really big school system operates. It is an excellent source book of experience and statistics resulting from an honest attempt to put theory into practice. No one need complain about insufficient evidence. For instance, almost one thousand persons were involved in determining the characteristics of a sound business-education program.

In a sense, the whole work is pertinent to my bias, guidance. Specifically, it covers in detail guidance practices and programs and their evaluation. These

are divided into educational, vocational, social, and personal guidance. Several of the concluding recommendations deal directly with these matters. Little of this material could be applied, in its present form, in any other situation because of conditions peculiar to the setting. However, much could be adapted.

In addition to its other values, the study is a very interesting example of the influence of external forces on an educational program.

LAWRENCE K. LOOMIS

1 1 1

Teaching Modern Languages to the Elementary-School Child

[Continued from page 6]

physics and spelling. . . . *This is a strong argument for beginning modern languages in the grammar grades*; and when one realizes that it is from ten to twelve that children become so very much interested in secret languages, . . . the motive for such work is supported. As this type depends primarily on the depth of the impression for the power of recall, it is necessary that the impression be made as intense as possible by use of appeals to native attention and instinctive interests.¹⁵

IN SUMMARY, a few pertinent facts seem to stand out with which not only psychologists but also linguists seem in general agreement. First, in the present-day world, it is becoming more and more important that as many people as possible should be able to speak and understand, even to read and write, with some facility, at least one language beyond their native tongue. Second, the speech organs of the young child are much more flexible than those of the adult; he is capable of making almost any sound contained in human speech anywhere; his interests and mental faculties are especially suited to the acquisition of a foreign language. Third, whereas bilingualism may cause some confusion in the young child, this confusion is seldom permanent, and the child's total language acquisition is greater than that of the monolingual child. Finally, the ideal age for introducing the study of foreign language in the formal schooling of the child would appear to be between the sixth year and the tenth year, following which there is less adaptability of the vocal organs and less memory for unrelated facts.

¹⁵ *Op. cit.* pp. 136-37 (italics inserted by the writers).

Considering the evidence set forth by psychologists and linguists, and the ineffectiveness of language teaching in colleges and high schools as practiced for the last several decades, it seems that a real effort should now be made to incorporate a vital and stimulating foreign-language program in the elementary schools of America.

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The Problems of Probation and Honor Students

[Continued from page 16]

activities (17 problems), curriculum and teaching procedures (13 problems), and health and physical development (12 problems).

The results of the study not only revealed significant differences between the problems of probation and honor students but also suggested that the problems of students bear a direct relationship to their effectiveness in academic work. Analyses used in the study were concerned mainly with central tendencies of groups, but they revealed problem areas in which specific services might be planned for probation students, as well as problems common to both groups. The common problems of students provide a sound basis for planning the general services of the college. Moreover, the faculty does not need to take pot shots in the dark in its effort to determine the concerns of students, for the study has provided individual check lists for 308 students, 255 of whom have indicated a desire to discuss their problems with various members of the faculty.

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Cadet Teaching at Indianapolis

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cake" method, but that there is a more effective method of doing so.

Indianapolis and other cities that have cadet-teaching programs and teachers' colleges which provide for practical experience throughout their curriculums are working along the right lines. If every high school were to establish a good cadet-teaching program, it would do much to improve the supply of teachers, both quantitatively and qualitatively.

R. H. E.

Educational Research Bulletin

FEBRUARY 11, 1953

Vol. XXXII, No. 2

W. W. Charters

1875-1952

to whose memory the articles in this
number are affectionately dedicated

The Man and the Educator

By DOUGLAS WAPLES

WITHIN recent memory, there was a spate of American biographies which portrayed their subjects as low forms of humanity. The biographers must have thoroughly disliked their biographees. The result was a muck-raking which doubtless made the subjects appear much worse in print than they really were. If so, it might falsify biography no less for the biographer to love his subject than to hate him.

My deep tenderness for W. W. Charters and his memory may have affected the selection, but certainly not the truthfulness, of what follows. So if affection for him makes him appear somehow more admirable than he appeared to some others, there is nothing at all I can do about it. He was for me, during and after the six years I worked with him closely, an all-wise, infallibly just, and always companionable father. My best hope for this sketch is that the other "boys" (who naturally include some boys of the opposite sex) may find in it some things which they would have said themselves—some reminders which reinforce their self-compulsions to produce their own biographies of Charters.

It seems to me clear that Charters' contributions to education, however defined, are sufficiently original and have been sufficiently consequential to place him in the front rank of

American educators. His contributions include the arts of teaching (largely by personal example); the development of research methods uniquely applicable to problems confronting teachers and administrators both of educational institutions and of industrial enterprises; the extension of pedagogic principles and research methods from the schools to the family (parent education) and to industrial, commercial, religious, and political organizations; the establishment of several of the most important professional organizations; and the production of an educational literature which is distinguished by its scope, clarity, and the directness of its approach to the basic problems of education and educational research.

The several competent biographies of Charters which his services to education demand, will not lack source materials. Charters was both impassioned, despite his always calm exterior, and severely methodical. His high regard for neatness—"Clean your desk-top when you leave"; "More statistical errors are due to sloppy writing than to faulty thinking"—explains the completeness, simple organization, and easy accessibility of his files, the primary sources for any biography.

Charters' files are now mostly at his last home—Pinecroft, Maple City, Michigan; others are at Ohio State University and Stephens College. Prospective biographers would naturally seek permission and advice from Mrs. Jessie Allen Charters, before planning their work. She would know wherever else the primary sources are.

The rest of this paper consists of some comments on Charters which come partly from my own recollections but mainly from data supplied or suggested by Mrs. Charters which in time and space go far beyond my personal ken. On the chance that others may share my interest in Charters' antecedents, personal accomplishments, and claims on posterity, what follows will be organized accordingly.

THE documentation on Charters' progenitors is rich.¹ For example, a hoary and hence respectable legend has him stem from a pirate, Sir Thomas de Longeville Charteris. Sir Thomas was boarded and taken on the high seas about 1304 by no less a person than Sir William Wallace, privy to The

¹ It is admirably summarized in a paper, *The Charters Family of Canada*, prepared by Jessie Allen Charters for the symbolic reinterment ceremony at Hagersville, Ontario, on August 27, 1952. This paper can doubtless be obtained with *bona fides* from W. W. Charters, Jr., College of Education, University of Illinois.

Bruce, king of Scotland. The captive Charteris interrogated his captor Wallace to such effect that the two joined forces, picked up The Bruce, and thereafter had affairs very much their own way. (Similarities between the behavior of our Charters and this ancestor are obviously more hereditary than coincidental.)

Six centuries later, the noble Charteris of Scotland begot the Charters of Ontario, Canada. Here Alexander Charters was born on March 2, 1848. When twenty-six, Alex Charters married Mary Ann Meally, and their first son, Werrett Wallace Charters, was born on October 24, 1875.

When W. W. Charters was thirty-two (1907) he married Jessie Blount Allen in Kansas City, Missouri. Jessie's personality was so closely blended with W. W.'s that we disciples could never clearly distinguish them. This mutuality was solemnized somehow by the fact that both had received Ph.D.'s on the same platform at the University of Chicago, on a clear June morning of 1904, three years before their marriage. I am still unable to say how much of what I most respected in W. W. came from Jessie, and vice versa.

The six years between his graduation from McMaster University in 1898 and his Chicago doctorate in 1904 were full ones. These years marked a Canadian small-town boy as a potential educational statesman. His dedication to educational efficiency was no less than the dedications of Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, Froebel, and the other immortals in the history of education. But what distinguished him from them (as I read the histories) was his stout refusal to be a martyr to any cause, and his boyish gusts of humor.

To learn what his teachers considered important in the good village school doubtless seemed to Charters as a schoolboy unreasonably hard. If learning could be easier, it would help other youngsters. Some such reflections, plus the fascination of an academic career and the encouragement of some highly intelligent and sympathetic teachers, combined to point Charters toward education as a career.

His training for that career was partly from schools but mostly from a few men. The schools were McMaster University, Ontario Normal College, Toronto University, and the University of Chicago. The men were much more important. In roughly chronological order they were: Sandy Mackay, professor of mathematics at McMaster University, a lifelong friend, who gave Charters his intellectual self-respect and pro-

fessional impetus; R. H. Thomson, principal of the Hamilton (Ontario) Model School, another lifelong friend, who largely financed his University of Chicago degree; and John Dewey at the University of Chicago. The translation of Dewey's pragmatism into terms which school administrators and teachers could understand was essentially Charters' mission.

IF ONE could merely translate the *Who's Who* sketch into somehow readable prose, it would touch on his friends, titles, and activities.

Boyd H. Bode of Ohio State University was a close friend and a major stimulus to Charters in his most productive years, by an attraction of opposites. Bode was foggy where Charters was clear. Charters was silent on topics which made Bode eloquent. Charters was happy when Bode discoursed on the philosophical inadequacies of procedures which Charters had validated by experiment. Their talks ranged from pipe-smoking to the definition of God, and Charters loved it. Perhaps what Charters drew from Bode was largely an abstract of the communion with the classical philosophers which he would have found if his days had been 36 hours long.

Others who helped to shape Charters' career were President James, University of Illinois (1917-19); President Hamerschlag, Carnegie Institute of Technology (1919-23); Chancellor John N. Bowman, University of Pittsburgh (1923-25); and Philip H. Knowlton of the Macmillan Company. But Charters was a keen observer and always sensitive to an idea, a means of clinching an argument, or even a phrase which could be used appropriately. So he learned much from any personal contact.

Charters' titles are so numerous that any meaningful list must be selective. The Charters piece in *Who's Who*, 1950 edition, is also selective but longer. The mere list of Charters' titles is plenty dull. Several dramas could be based on each, given the space and dramaturgical talent. But the more important titles are—*Teacher* of everything (and we can guess how well he taught it) in the rural school of Rockford, Ontario (1894-95); *Principal* of the Model School of Hamilton, Ontario (1899-1901); *Principal, Supervisor* of practice-teaching, and general trouble shooter in the State Normal School of Winona, Minnesota (1904-1907); *Professor* at the University of Missouri for ten years and *Dean* of the School of Education

for seven (1907-1917); *Professor* at the University of Illinois for two years and *Dean* of the School of Education for one (1917-19);² *Professor* of the art of teaching and *Director* of the Research Bureau for Retail Training at the Carnegie Institute of Technology from 1919 to 1923; *Professor* and *Dean* of the Graduate School at the University of Pittsburgh, where he organized graduate studies on a more systematic and intelligible basis than any graduate school was ever organized before (1923-25); *Professor* of Education at the University of Chicago from 1925 to 1928, during which years he directed at least two educational-research projects of national scope—the Commonwealth Teacher Training Study and Education for Librarianship; *Director* of the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State University from 1928 to 1942, when he “officially” retired; *Director* of educational research at Stephens College until his retirement (1920-1950); *Director* of the Training Bureau of the War Manpower Commission from 1942 to 1943; and *Author* of a number and range of publications which were in great measure responsible for making “education” the academic discipline it has largely become. The addition of some twenty equally authentic titles to the foregoing list would not change the pattern and might blur it.

Charters’ activities are naturally suggested in large part by the foregoing titles. But the titles are merely the signs on the door. What went on inside was always more important, and was too big to be covered by the title, as his students soon found out. Charters never stood on formality with his friends. He was the more indulgent to the names we gave him—W. W., the Chief, or the Boss. He gave me hell in 1923 for sirring him. I got by with the remark that I was too fresh out of the Navy. The truth was that I sirred him because I felt like it.

Charters’ extra-curricular activities were what endeared him to us boys. They included his perfect performance as husband and father; his sparking of any good works that needed sparking in the community he happened to belong to at the time—and the 23° tilt of his smile which convinced his audience that he was neither self-righteous, self-seeking, nor cynical: his services to the Baptists, for example, were considerable. (The Baptists gave him all their honors and even named a forest-reserve park after him.) Likewise his services to Rotary. He

² He organized the Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois, in 1918, and appointed B. R. Buckingham the first director.

was largely responsible for founding several important educational organizations—College Teachers of Education, American Educational Research Association, Sigma Alpha Epsilon, Phi Delta Kappa, Kappa Delta Pi, and Pi Lambda Theta, in addition to his loyal support of such groups as the Cleveland Conference, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and the editorial boards of the several yearbooks. The number and range of the groups he “serviced” is a bit astronomical. For the record we should at least add the United States Armed Forces Institute, the National Tuberculosis Association, secretarial training, nurses’ training, pharmacy training, veterinary medicine, American Radiator salesmanship, Boy Scouts, agricultural extension agencies, and scores of others which a biographer with more space at his disposal will, I hope, specify.

Re-reading the last paragraph makes it necessary to state that Charters, though no violet, only helped these enterprises because they needed helping. His “suggestions” to groups (informally invited to consider the organization of this or that) on how they might be of some use to somebody were invariably accepted as agenda. But his administrative genius in delegating responsibility (and could I write a volume on that topic!) never failed to prevent his extra-curricular interests from crowding his curricular interests—the jobs he set himself to do.

CHARTERS’ death on March 8, 1952, dropped a heavy weight not merely on the souls but also on the shoulders of those of us who trusted him to do what most needed to be done to make public education, in the United States at least, less of a racket and more of an intelligently organized crusade for social betterment in the long run. How many of his widely diversified responsibilities we can shoulder, and how able we are to spot the leads Charters would have himself developed, is a personal problem—a problem which each of his disciples must and will meet in terms of his personal allegiance to Charters and of his own capabilities.

But we can all pay him our personal tributes by recording our own images of his unique personality. That these images differ widely is suggested by the hundreds of letters which Mrs. Charters received after her husband’s death—for example: The United States Armed Forces Institute formally “resolved that Charters had won top honors as an educational statesman . . .”

The Board of Trustees of Ohio State University *resolved* that Charters should be revered for "his boundless faith in people and his way of encouraging others to their best achievements . . ."

A university president wrote: "Charters' artistry in conference stands in my memory as an unexcelled example of skill in the stimulation and direction of co-operative research. . . . His steady calm, his gentle and unrelenting pressures toward the issue, and his abundant humor were the components of his statesmanship."

So much for the record. Off the record we disciples think of Charters in far less abstract terms. He was a man with lovable and admirable peculiarities.

DURING 1922, at the Carnegie Institute, Charters, then relatively affluent from royalties of *Teaching the Common Branches* and several other ventures, made a practice of scrounging pipe tobacco from penurious graduate students. The manner of his scrounging honored them far more than if the tobacco had gone from him to them. Rare diplomacy!

Charters loudly boasted of being lazy. His sort of laziness was the trait which a recent survey of business executives found to be the major distinction between executives who made simple, easily workable decisions and plans, and those who "made all the trouble"—the less intelligent eager-beavers.

Charters' "laziness" led him from the farm to the school, to administration, to research, and to the direction of research. In short, he made efficient administration fashionable in educational circles which had previously dignified the eager-beaver far beyond his intellectual desserts. Posterity will thank him, as his colleagues did, for his probing insistence on the concrete and clearly statable gist of the matter. One of his remarks I have always treasured was—"Sometime after forty-five you should stop trying to increase your horsepower. Just concentrate on keeping your spark plugs clean."

Charters could get more work out of anybody—I repeat, anybody—than anyone else I ever knew. I have seen him goad dumb-clucks into highly efficient production, including me. At the time of our closest association I could never reconcile the quality of his brains with his devotion to the (then) *Saturday Evening Post*. In this (to me) God-awful tripe he had discovered a kindred spirit in one Scattergood Baines. One of Scattergood's discoveries was that he could think better in his bare feet. I well remember settling down to an all-night job

with Charters which he prefaced by reminding me of Scattergood's discovery (by no means unfamiliar, thanks to several previous reminders). Said Charters, "If you can think any better with your shoes off, for God's sake remove them!" Even so did he make his staff produce.

The rôle of prophet is hard and treacherous; but if forced to epitomize what posterity will consider Charters' major contribution I think I should refer to an article he wrote in April, 1922, "The Collecting of Unrecorded Specifics." The point of this article may be represented by the following paragraphs, which describe, in effect, the nature and method of much of his most important work:

It is obvious that there is a great mass of specifics which, though used by expert teachers with excellent results, are found neither in print nor in any other form available to the teacher. . . .

In the collection of unrecorded specifics there are six steps: a difficulty or duty analysis, the turning of this into questions, the training of interviewers, the interview, the report, and the compilation of reports. For the information of the craft I shall describe in some detail the difficulties and methods involved in collecting information concerning the arts of college teaching, retail selling, handling sales people, teaching ideals, Sunday School teaching, and superintending Sunday Schools.³

We have here, in essence, a simple procedure which enables any one to find out what he needs to learn in order to practice any skill or to acquire any wisdom which any of his accessible contemporaries can practice, or have themselves acquired; provided, of course, the learner is willing to take the necessary trouble, which Charters always was. I have found no briefer indication of what is probably Charters' most important legacy to the craft.

One of the major defects of our universe is that men like Charters must die. It is altogether fitting that the rest of us should die, when we have had our chance and become senile. But Charters, as I conceive him, could only grow in old age, like the archllama in *Lost Horizon*. Charters would have known at the age of two hundred what he had always known—namely, when to delegate details and concentrate on policy, in an ascending spiral of abstraction, with the lower end of the coil firmly rooted in the specifics.

But it is the abundant and dynamic kindliness of Charters to which, in conclusion, I give my most respectful salute.

³ *Journal of Educational Research*, V (April, 1922), p. 240.

The Student of Curriculum Problems

By EDGAR DALE

I FIRST became acquainted with Mr. Charters when I was a teacher in the Skokie Junior High School in Winnetka, Illinois. I was taking late afternoon and evening classes at the downtown center of the University of Chicago and noted that W. W. Charters, who had recently come to the University of Chicago from the University of Pittsburgh, was giving a series of lectures on the teaching of ideals. I attended several of them and liked the warm, friendly presentation which he made. I was interested enough to enroll with him that summer in his course on The Teaching of Ideals.

The material, later to become a book by that title, was then in mimeographed form, and we were asked as a final examination to comment on the book and on the teaching method used in the course. The summer was hot and I was young, so I wrote a very sharp and critical comment on the book. I was surprised that fall, in conversation with Mr. Charters, to have him say:

You know I told my class to comment critically on the course and on the experimental edition of the book. Those who said the course was fine and that the book was excellent got a *C*, other things being equal. Those who had some intelligent criticisms of both the course and the book got a *B*. Those who were sharply critical and backed up their points got an *A*. And [he added with his characteristic grin] your criticism was the sharpest of all.

I did not know it then, but this was the kind of evaluation that Mr. Charters liked. He really wanted students to speak up in his class and say what they thought. He not only felt secure enough to take it but he thought that he could pick up a few ideas this way. Perhaps some "unrecorded specifics" as he called them.

My first job after leaving the University of Chicago was with the Eastman Teaching Films, Inc., at the Eastman Kodak Company. Once a month I would confer in Rochester with Mr. Charters concerning studies on the effect of motion pictures on children and youth which the Payne Fund of New York City had agreed to finance. He talked to me about ways in

which we might analyze the content of films and told me of the plan that had been set up.

IN GENERAL, the plan was to bring together a group of eight to ten psychologists, sociologists, and other research workers, and find out what research they wanted to do on feature films. At this first meeting each research worker wrote up a possible study and stated the necessary budget. Among those participating in the studies were Frank N. Freeman, then of the University of Chicago, Ben Wood of Columbia College (Columbia University), George Stoddard, now president of the University of Illinois, Mark May of Yale, L. L. Thurstone of the University of Chicago, Christian Ruckmick, then of the University of Iowa, and Samuel Renshaw of Ohio State University. Each man indicated the kind of study which he would like to carry out. Funds were then made available and we met once or twice a year to confer on these studies.

The rôle that Mr. Charters played was that of manager or director. He did not tell these men what ought to be studied or suggest techniques which would be especially fruitful. Rather, he attempted to bring the whole investigation under one tent. The phrase that I remember Mr. Charters using again and again was "try to nail down some particular points." He tried to get the investigators to be more modest in their research plans, to attempt less, and try to "get something nailed down."

He gave me much help on my studies. I studied children's attendance at motion pictures and the content of motion pictures—one of the earliest studies involving content analysis—and developed a method for teaching motion-picture discrimination to high-school youth. Mr. Charters argued that to change the effects of motion pictures on children and youth we should teach them to be discriminating, to learn the difference between a good film and a poor one, to be aware of the social values in films. He maintained that we should teach discrimination in the choice of films as we would in the choice of newspapers, magazines, or books.

Mr. Charters played an important rôle in making decisions about the publication of the studies. Nearly all the investigators wanted more space to tell their story to the public than was available. He pointed out, as was common with him, that scientific papers could and should be written for colleagues, but

that these volumes should tell the story to the public. Mr. Charters' own summary of the Payne Fund Studies was a model of clarity and terseness. It illustrated, it seems to me, the importance of the research worker's getting his findings into easily understood form when presenting them to laymen.

A SECOND study in which I participated with Mr. Charters was in veterinary medicine. The approach that we used was the one familiar to those who have studied his curriculum techniques. We first discovered what the graduates of the College of Veterinary Medicine did just after graduation and what their subsequent careers were. Personal letters were sent to all graduates, and we secured replies from 83 per cent of them. Mr. Charters liked to try out little studies within big studies. It took up to four individual letters to get this 83-per cent return, and he estimated that seven letters would bring a reply from almost all of the graduates.

We found in this study—and this is true of other professional fields—that the training necessary to get the first job and to hold it may differ strikingly from that which would equip the person for the work he will be doing later on in his career. For example, at that time 42 per cent of the graduates were practicing veterinary medicine, 14 per cent were in the Bureau of Animal Industry, 10 per cent were employed by boards of health, 7 per cent were teaching. In building a curriculum it was necessary, therefore, to think not only in terms of the first positions which these men would fill, but also of the key teaching, administrative, and research jobs that they would hold later. This suggested a broad, basic curriculum with a strong grounding in the basic sciences and the liberal arts.

A second Charterian technique involved the study of the activities of the veterinarian. We studied the diseases with which students would deal. We found that some diseases rarely met by the young veterinarian were given almost as much attention as diseases commonly met in his regular work.

Here again we were faced with the problem of evaluating the activities carried out by the veterinarian. Thus, an exceedingly important disease such as foot and mouth disease, while rarely met by the veterinarian, might be extraordinarily important for him to recognize right away because of its virulent character. But here as in other studies carried on by Mr. Charters,

we identified the activities of the professional person, how often they were performed, and which were most important.

A THIRD study in which I was associated with Mr. Charters was in connection with the National Tuberculosis Association. Here we were again faced with the same kinds of problems. What does a state secretary do? What does he need to know in order to do this well? What training programs are necessary to upgrade personnel?

We also studied the kinds of film and pamphlet materials produced by the National Tuberculosis Association. Mr. Charters liked to use simple and easily understood approaches. He would often chart materials on vertical and horizontal axes. For example, in our work with the National Tuberculosis Association, we studied the gaps and probable overlappings in the kinds of materials produced. To do this, a large chart was developed which had on one axis the kinds of persons for whom such materials would be prepared, namely, nurses, interns, parents, high-school students, elementary-school children, public-health workers, and the like. On the other axis we had the kinds of materials needed by them. By checking these two items against each other, we saw that we already had many materials of certain types for certain individuals but were lacking in others, notably in materials for public-health nurses and interns.

Mr. Charters liked to get things down on paper, to manualize operations, and this charting is an example. He also liked to discover what was really taught in the curriculum. Thus, in the study which we did in the College of Education when Mr. Charters first came to Ohio State University, in the Veterinary Study, and doubtless in many others, specifications were set up for analyzing courses. In these course outlines were included the prerequisites, the instructor's objectives stated with sufficient precision and detail to differentiate them from objectives of other courses whose content might appear to be similar, and then a course-content analysis into topics and subtopics, noting, in terms of time spent, the depth to which the instructor treated the topic. The aim of such course outlines was to discover what was being taught, in so far as it was possible through this device. Thus, one could eliminate unplanned duplication and also discover topics that were not adequately covered.

My part of the study in connection with the National Tuberculosis Association was to analyze the readability of pamphlets put out for the layman, and to work out plans for the readjustment of these materials. Mr. Charters liked to see methodologies or techniques come from the studies in which he was engaged. These, to him, were ways of generalizing the study. He constantly encouraged me to go ahead with readability studies and studies in the field of vocabulary.

THE last project on which I worked with Mr. Charters was the study of the curriculum of the United States Armed Forces Institute. One of the high lights of this study to Mr. Charters was that every single one of his "boys" that he had asked to work on the study had agreed to do so. It may have seemed remarkable to him, but it did not to us. Anyone who spent time with Mr. Charters learned something and shared something because he was always treated as an equal.

If I were to summarize here the important ideas and techniques which Mr. Charters used in these various studies it would be something like the following:

Try to find the best persons you can in the country to do the job.

Set up the job on a co-operative basis and let people carry out the studies which they like to do.

Set rigorous due dates and try to adhere to them.

Work very closely with the manager of the program, the chairman of the curriculum committee, to see that the agenda are properly set and that people understand what they are doing.

Have regular meetings from time to time in which people can report on their progress and their difficulties.

Make certain that good final reports are written and that the relatively small number of ideas formally dealt with are really nailed down.

The Leader of Major Educational Projects

By RALPH W. TYLER

MR. CHARTERS referred to himself as a "curriculum engineer," thus emphasizing his interest in translating educational and psychological theory into effective instructional practice. Actually, however, his active rôle over the years was that of stimulator, encourager, and guide for many important co-operative educational projects. Whatever might be his title or nominal relationship to major educational enterprises in which he took part, in fact his function was that of constructive leadership.

Those of us who worked with him on these projects saw three of his outstanding characteristics continually in evidence. At the initial meeting of a project staff or steering committee, and thereafter, invariably his efforts to clarify the purposes and the procedures of the project would become apparent. He was not content to have his own private view of the aims and techniques of the project. If the study were to be an effective co-operative one, he keenly felt the need for common understanding of ends and means. His efforts gave direction and stimulus to the elimination of vagueness, confusion, and ambiguity which frequently surround and engulf activities.

Because Mr. Charters published, in 1923, clear and explicit statements regarding the steps he recommended for curriculum-development programs, many people have assumed that his concepts of the curriculum and his techniques for curriculum study were crystallized at that point. Those who worked with him on these projects found that he was not only willing to modify his previous notions, but he actually sought new experiences and new evidence on which to revise or reject previous ideas and to develop new concepts and techniques more adequate to the cumulative experience. He was not a stubborn supporter of his previous pronouncements but he pursued new experience, he persistently analyzed the new situations to identify inadequacies in his previous formulations, and then sought to work out a more satisfactory statement. This trait was almost unique among leaders in education.

Mr. Charters' concern to provide vital learning experiences

for all those who worked with him and for him accounts for the number of educators who attribute to him a large measure of their educational development. He did not view us merely as employees or assistants. We, like him, were students of education. He helped us analyze each complex situation that arose. He saw to it that we understood the guiding principles on which we were operating. He gave us responsibility as rapidly as we could take it, and gave us credit and recognition for all that we did. These efforts to help people grow professionally and personally were not limited to those who were enrolled as his students. They were characteristic of his relationships with all the members of the various groups with whom he worked. Hence, he was an effective teacher for hundreds who were never students in his classes.

MY FIRST experience in working for him was in the fall of 1926, when I was serving as statistical technician on the Commonwealth Teacher Training Study. The purpose of this study was to derive the objectives and content for the curriculum of teacher education by collecting and analyzing the activities of teachers. In collecting teachers' activities, Mr. Charters sought the co-operation of hundreds of people—teachers, administrators, supervisors, and university faculty members who had teachers-in-service in their classes. A series of conferences was held with potential co-operators, and at these sessions I first saw the simple, direct fashion in which he presented a complex study. He stated the purpose of the project in one sentence and then outlined very clearly the plan of procedure, after which he asked for their help in collecting lists of teachers' activities.

In the discussions that followed, many suggestions were made regarding ways in which teaching activities could be collected through diaries, recorded observations, interviews, and stimulated recall. Frequently, too, the conferees lost track of the purpose of the investigation, or they began to repeat suggestions and rehash earlier proposals. I had never before seen anyone more succinctly summarize the previous discussion or more clearly raise relevant questions which kept the conference moving ahead constructively and developed a common understanding of the purpose and procedure of the study. Many times thereafter, I witnessed Mr. Charters cutting through

confusion and ambiguity by his clear summaries and pertinent questions.

As the collaborators sent in their lists of teachers' activities, each activity was typed on a card. The number of specific activities reported was staggering, and eventually more than a million cards were assembled. Since Mr. Charters was trying to build a comprehensive list of teaching activities, he did not want to eliminate any item submitted from the field. Of course, many of these items were duplicates, or nearly so, but he was unwilling to eliminate duplicates except as rules for classification were clearly formulated and justified. Otherwise, he believed that the list would be too largely the opinion of the investigator as to what teaching activities included.

To arrive at an objective scheme of classification for these many activities, he called together his advisory committee. In the discussion of the committee two main problems were raised, not only how to identify and eliminate activities which were duplicates of others in the list although they might be worded in different terms, but how to determine the level of specificity desired.

For example, on one list the activity "conferring with parents" appeared. On another list "talking with parents about their son's school work" was included, while on a third list the activity "discussing John's difficulties in reading with his parents" was found. It is clear that the second activity is a more specific form of the first and the third a more specific form of the second. If the level of specificity of the first is appropriate, then the second and third can be classified under the first and thus be eliminated. Mr. Charters suggested that the most specific of the three activities was a more appropriate level for the list because it was to be used to derive objectives and content for teacher education, and the goals of teacher education needed to be quite specific. Mr. Judd and Mr. Morrison ridiculed this view. They said that Mr. Charters was accepting without critical review the specific atomism of Thorndike, and was expressing a mechanical conception of curriculum development that missed the main point of education, namely, the process of generalizing learning. "For example," Mr. Judd said, "prospective teachers can learn general concepts and principles with regard to parent conferences about pupil difficulties which will enable them to confer effectively not only about John's difficulties in reading but Jane's in arithmetic."

The younger members of the staff were very indignant about the attack on Mr. Charters' position and incensed over the ridicule used. But Mr. Charters showed no signs of anger or of desire to refute the criticisms. He asked questions to get his critics to elaborate their views of generalized learning and to get the evidence which they used to support their views. After the conference, he pursued the ideas further, and then the staff worked out a scheme of classifying the teaching activities under headings that were consciously selected in terms of a level of specificity which was intermediate between the very general and the highly specific. This was the first of many times when I saw Mr. Charters use criticism, not as something to refute, but as a stimulus to further study which resulted in the modification and revision of earlier views.

His continuing interest in the educational development of the young people on his staff was frequently illustrated during the progress of the Commonwealth Teacher Training Study. Each of us prepared a semi-monthly progress report on his phase of the project. Mr. Charters read the reports carefully and called us in to suggest possible ways of attacking problems with which we were having difficulty and to encourage us to push on further with promising leads which we reported. He suggested to me that I write up for publication several technical procedures which I had devised. He criticized the rough drafts of the articles and helped me to make them clearer and better organized. After the first large meeting, where I was assigned to present the progress of the Study to a group of principals, Mr. Charters spent two hours with me reviewing my speech, its content, its tone, and its presentation. He made many helpful criticisms and encouraged me to give another speech a few weeks later. He had infinite patience and spent a great deal of time in this informal teaching.

IN 1929, Mr. Charters brought three of his former students to join the staff of the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State University, W. H. Cowley, Edgar Dale, and myself. The Bureau was expanded in that year in order to serve more adequately the educational needs of the University itself. In the five major colleges enrolling Freshmen—Agriculture, Arts and Sciences, Commerce, Education, and Engineering—junior deans had been appointed to give leadership to the education and guidance of lower-division students. Mr. Charters and his

staff devoted much of their time and energy to assisting the junior deans in their difficult task. Working with this group gave me another opportunity to observe Mr. Charters' leadership.

In this project, I first learned the value of what is now called in the military forces "operational research," but which Mr. Charters called "service studies." In inviting me to work with the junior deans on achievement testing and studies of instruction, he expressed the view that testing and instructional projects of this sort had great value in the guidance and education of the teachers who participated, as well as in the findings which might result from such studies. This was a novel notion, but as I look back upon the work we did and see how much we all learned from our participation, and as I recall some of those who were most active (Nisonger, Sampson, Barrows, Price, Miller, Snyder, Morrill, Reeder, Croy, Lang, to mention only a few), it seems clear in retrospect that the kind of thinking about education required to develop tests, to set up investigations in teaching, to analyze and interpret results is a powerful means of education of the participants. Since that time, this idea has been used extensively in the development of co-operative studies in education.

A second important principle of educational leadership I also learned from Mr. Charters in connection with this project. When the junior deans came together to attack educational problems in their respective colleges, I assumed that we would start with a consideration of appropriate educational objectives for the curriculum of the college, then take up the content and courses, then teaching procedures, and finally examinations. However, the faculty members concerned usually came in with particular problems which were perplexing them. In one case, it was the question of the relative values of individual laboratory work as compared with demonstration experiments, in another it was the difficulty of the reading matter in the textbooks and reference materials, in still another it was dissatisfaction with the final examinations. To start every investigation with an attack upon objectives seemed, to the faculty members concerned, something of an evasion of their real problems, and they were likely to lose interest in such a study.

Mr. Charters suggested that we begin each investigation at the point of chief interest to the faculty members involved and that we help them to see the total conceptualization of the edu-

cational problem, even though our attack was upon a small segment of it. He predicted that, as the project went on, more and more aspects of the total situation would be brought into the study so that eventually a much more comprehensive understanding of the problem would result. This proved to be the case. By beginning each investigation at the point of the greatest interest and concern of the participants, by clarifying the total concept of the educational process so that the participants could see just where the present problem fitted into the total picture, the studies became continuing projects of instructional improvement.

For example, the work in zoology began with an effort to improve the final examinations. This led to a study of what should really be tested in zoology, which brought in the question of desirable objectives. The use of the new examinations indicated low achievement of ability to use scientific method. This, in turn, led to a study of the content and methods of the course and to experimentation with new materials and methods. Thus, within three years the staff in Zoology 401-402 had gone through a fairly comprehensive investigation of the major phases of the instructional problem. The use of this principle frequently accounted for the success of Mr. Charters' efforts to stimulate systematic studies of educational problems.

IN OUR work with the junior deans, he expounded an administrative principle which I have found of great value over the years. In 1931, the depression brought a severe cut to the university budget. A special faculty committee under the leadership of Arthur Klein was asked to study the activities and administration of the university and to recommend ways of using its financial resources more efficiently. During the committee's investigation, it was proposed that those of us working with the junior deans and the faculty on improvement of education and guidance would be more properly and effectively located as an agency directly under the President, rather than in the Bureau of Educational Research which put the Director of the Bureau and the Dean of the College between us and the President. In discussing this, Mr. Charters said:

An agency which is doing a new task and must obtain wide co-operation throughout the institution is better located when there are several administrators between it and the head of the institution. On the one

hand, this appears as lower status to the rest of the faculty and they will call on you without a feeling of resentment at your being the "fair-haired boys of the President," and on the other hand you have to justify your work and explain it to the intermediate administrators. This gives the agency the support of these administrators who help to explain it to others, to get their co-operation and to fight for its support.

We asked to have our activity continued in the Bureau of Educational Research and found the advantages which Mr. Charters had outlined. Later, when I moved to the University of Chicago, I found its examining staff in a somewhat precarious position because it was located so directly under the President. We worked out an arrangement which placed the staff in a close co-operative and co-ordinate relationship with the College and the Dean of Students, so as to get the advantages of easier co-operation and broader understanding and support. This principle illustrates the essentially pragmatic philosophy of Mr. Charters which led him on a number of occasions to formulate administrative principles at variance with the "armchair school."

THE project which gave me the greatest opportunity to observe Mr. Charters' leadership was the work we did with the Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute, now the Rochester Institute of Technology. He brought me into the program in 1929, shortly after he began his consultative activities with the Institute which continued throughout the balance of his life. Probably the educational program worked out at the Rochester Institute of Technology was a more complete illustration of Mr. Charters' theory and practice of curriculum development than any other with which he worked. This, I think, was due to several factors. It was the first technical institute, in the current sense of the term, so that the field was free for bold thinking and creative planning. The soundness of the development is indicated by the fact that Rochester has become the model on which the many other technical institutes have patterned largely in ideas about both ends and means.

Another factor of primary importance in the effective utilization of Mr. Charters' leadership has been the unusual administrative competence of the two presidents of the Institute with whom he worked. Colonel John Randall was the president when we first went to Rochester. He sensed the value of Mr.

Charters' approach, and the great contribution which could be made by having him spend two days each month advising the faculty, reviewing progress on curriculum development, and helping to set the assignment for curriculum work for the next month. Colonel Randall believed wholeheartedly in the potentialities of the Institute as its program was emerging, and he had complete confidence in Mr. Charters. Furthermore, his unflagging industry and unwavering support of the enterprise gave Mr. Charters the chance to work out fully a post-high school program of education serving youth and the industries of the community, and combining general and occupational education. By establishing community advisory committees in the various occupational fields, the Institute was able to obtain helpful guidance in making comprehensive studies of community educational needs, of occupational activities, and of the success of students on the job. No other situation has provided such a complete basis for planning.

Mark Ellingson, who followed Colonel Randall as president of the Institute, earned his Ph.D. under Mr. Charters at Ohio State University. He had been director of educational research at the Institute before becoming president. This gave him a thorough understanding of the situation and excellent training in curriculum development. His support enabled Mr. Charters to work out his ideas more rapidly and with more adequate understanding and more effective implementation than any other institution had provided. The result is the outstanding pioneering institution in technical education, an institution with a highly functional curriculum, employing continually tested instructional materials and methods, selecting and guiding students on the basis of studies of student success and difficulties, in short, a concrete exemplification of Mr. Charters' teaching.

SINCE I was associated with him for 23 years on the Rochester Institute project, I learned many things from him in this relationship. One that I have employed often since he explained it to me is the use of "multiple spearheads" in getting a program established on an institution-wide basis. In undertaking a development program in a large institution, one faces a dilemma. The new and difficult problems need to be worked out on a small scale before involving the entire faculty. Yet

when only a part of the faculty is at work on frontier problems, the rest are likely to be critical and to attack the activities of the pioneers as a threat to their own work. Many a curriculum-development project has failed because of this type of attack.

At Rochester, Mr. Charters stimulated every department or group to undertake a "spearhead" assignment, each a different one. For example, the chemistry department undertook the initial task of developing student manuals from the activity analyses, the electrical department began the development of new mathematics tests, the retailing department initiated a more functional English course. Each of these "spearheads" was carefully planned, and results recorded and reported. When the activity had been carried through the pilot runs and after necessary modifications and revisions were made, it was then adopted by other departments and adapted to their conditions. Since all departments were engaged in "spearhead" work, there was no out-group to attack the innovators. The particular "spearhead" activity undertaken by a department or group was always one closely related to its own interests or problems, thus assuring more basic motivation.

The Rochester project also provided several other illustrations of Mr. Charters' flexibility in modifying his concepts and techniques in the light of new experience and new evidence. For example, when he initiated the development of a more functional program of occupational education at Rochester, his plan was to analyze an occupational area such as restaurant manager to identify the activities of this job and the traits of personality required to guarantee efficient performance of the job. From the two lists, the activity list and the trait list, curriculum content could be developed consisting of material describing how the activities are performed and explaining the meaning and significance of the traits. The curriculum would then consist in teaching students how to perform these activities and in inculcating the desired character traits.

THE criticisms of Judd and others had focused Mr. Charters' attention on the problem of the degree of specificity or generality appropriate for an activity analysis. Our own studies at Ohio State University indicated that greater learning efficiency results when instruction is aimed at more general behavior than that involved in performing a given occupational

activity. We had shown that students who were taught information and skills that had wide applicability to various life activities and given practice in applying the information and skills to a variety of activities could learn to perform a much larger range of activities than could have been taught in the same time if each activity had to be taught independently. Furthermore, while information and skills were being taught, it was possible to develop attitudes which served to guide the student in a constructive use of his information and skills.

As data from these studies in the Colleges of Ohio State came to Mr. Charters' attention, he actively sought to extend them into the work at Rochester and to pursue their implications for his own theory and practice of curriculum development. The result was a considerable modification of theory and technique. His revised plan involved "analyzing the job to discover activities inherent in the function, and the traits of personality that are needed to guarantee efficiency. On the basis of this prescription, the curriculum content is derived in terms of information, attitudes, and skills."

This is an example of a rare characteristic in educational leaders generally. He was not only willing to look at criticism, but positively sought new experience and evidence that would serve to develop, modify, or even invalidate his previous ideas.

Over the 23 years in which he served as educational consultant to the Rochester Institute of Technology, Mr. Charters worked with hundreds of staff members. Every one with whom he worked was a fellow student of education. I can recall many times after our visit to the Institute when he would ask about my impressions of some staff member. Did he have promise? What potential did I recognize? What difficulties was he having? What experiences would help him grow still more? After these discussions, Mr. Charters would often drop a note to the subject of the discussion, suggesting possible opportunities he might want to consider, or he might write to Mr. Ellingson, suggesting a helpful rôle he could play in the development of the staff member, or he might wait until his next visit to the Institute to give counsel and guidance. The result of Mr. Charters' interest is very apparent as one becomes acquainted with the Institute. I know of no institution which has such a large proportion of its staff members continually active in their own education, both formally and informally.

SPACE does not permit me to relate more anecdotes illustrating the qualities of leadership which Mr. Charters exemplified in all of the co-operative projects in which he was engaged. In the Study of the Education of Librarians, conducted in the late twenties, in his participation in the early stages of the Co-operative Test Service, in the Study of the Dental Curriculum, in the Pharmaceutical Investigation, and in his years of counsel to Stephens College, Mr. Charters gave his colleagues help and guidance on almost every phase of educational inquiry. But in all these varied activities, he gave impressive evidence again and again of the three characteristics mentioned previously. Mr. Charters served in every professional group to clarify purpose and procedure; he continually sought new experience and evidence upon which to test his ideas and build a growing body of theory and practice, rather than a static one. Finally, in all his professional relationships, Mr. Charters sought the educational growth of his colleagues and assistants, encouraging them to obtain helpful learning experiences and to undertake responsibility as rapidly as they could assume it. These qualities seemed to me to be the very heart of his great educational leadership.

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The Writer

By RUTH E. SEEGER

A FIRST scanning of a bibliography of Mr. Charters' writings gives one a feeling that his interests were wide and far-ranging. A second scanning gives one a realization of continuing threads of interest on which hang the whole framework. These threads are the warp and woof of the fabric. Chief among them are curriculum construction, character education, job analysis, boys' reading interests, education of women, salesmanship, personality, and educational engineering. These crop up again and again, and form the basis on which many other interests and inquiries rest.

To illustrate this we might examine one of his early interests, grammatical errors and their correction. In 1915 the University of Missouri published the results of a study he started in the previous year entitled *A Course of Study in Grammar Based upon the Grammatical Errors of School Children of Kansas City, Missouri*. This was one of the earliest research

studies in this field, and H. L. Mencken in *The American Language* gives recognition to it by stating that "it was not until 1914 that an investigation . . . was undertaken on an adequate scale and by an inquirer of adequate equipment."¹ Following this initial study further reports appeared at intervals. They include an article in the sixteenth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, one in the *Journal of Educational Research* dated April, 1920, and two in the proceedings of the Sixth Conference on Educational Measurements held at the University of Indiana in 1919.

We also find that three tests were issued by the Public School Publishing Company under his authorship. They were: Charters' Diagnostic Language Test, published in 1918 and revised in 1922; Charters' Diagnostic Grammar Test, in 1922; and Charters' Diagnostic Language and Grammar Test, 1922. These were among the earliest standardized tests in the field of English. This interest was next reflected by the publication in 1923 of a set of elementary English textbooks. These were three in number, were written in collaboration with E.M. Cowan and Annette Betz, and carried the title "Essential Language Habits." In the same year the United States Bureau of Education published *Games and Other Devices for Improving Pupils' English*,² by W. W. Charters and Harry G. Paul. In much the same manner each of his main interests might be traced as it grew and branched out to embrace many side issues.

Let us look now at the earliest books he wrote. In 1909, the first edition of *Methods of Teaching* appeared. This was revised in 1912. His second book, *Teaching the Common Branches*, appeared in 1913, was revised in 1917, and was reissued in a revised and enlarged form in 1924. It is doubtful whether many teachers in training during that period missed reading these books. *Curriculum Construction* appeared in 1923. *The Teaching of Ideals*, published in 1926, was translated into an Indian edition and a Chinese edition in the year 1930. These were the books which were his and his alone. He collaborated on many more, and his name appears on the title pages of others in the capacity of editor or adviser.

It has been said that Mr. Charters was the father of "job analysis." Such a statement is easily believed when one considers the many fields to which he applied this technique. Early

¹ New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1936. p. 418.

² It was one of the Bureau bulletin series and is numbered 1923, No. 43.

mention is made, in 1922, of activity analysis in relation to curriculum construction. This was followed by a study which resulted in the publication of *Analysis of Secretarial Duties and Traits* (1924) and by a series of books which were written as a part of his study of librarians' work made under the sponsorship of the American Library Association (1926). These were textbooks for library training and were based on activity-analysis techniques. The same technique was used in the extensive investigations of pharmacy, nursing education, veterinary medicine, recreational leadership, and teacher training. The latter is possibly the best known of all, and is reported in the *Commonwealth Teacher Training Study*, published in 1929. But through the years, magazine articles appeared throwing further light on this research technique.

Mr. Charters' interest in the reading tastes of boys resulted in 4 studies at ten-year intervals. The first, in 1918, appeared under the title of "Changing Fashions in Dime Novel Substitutes." In 1928, an article entitled "Books Boys Read" appeared; another in 1938, "Sixty-four Popular Boys' Books"; and the fourth in 1948, "What's Happened to Boys' Favorites?" These 4 studies reveal the persistence of one of his interests.

His writings, though primarily for professional educators, include other audiences. He collaborated on several textbook series, all for elementary schools. In chronological order, the first was "Essential Language Habits." This was first published in 1923 and was revised in 1929. The next, entitled "Conduct Problems," appeared in 1931. His "Health and Growth Series," published in 1935, was reissued in 1941 under the title, "New Health and Growth Series," and the final edition came out in 1949-50 as "Today's Health and Growth Series." The set of "Democracy Readers" appeared first in 1940 and was revised and issued anew in 1951-52. Three of the books have been published since Mr. Charters' death.

Another interest close to his heart may be expressed best by his phrase "educational engineering." We find it appearing again and again, mainly in magazine articles from 1930 up to the time of his death. That phrase—and the field of interest it stood for—was his "brain child," in much the same way that "job analysis" had been.

He served as editor of the EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BUL-

LETIN from September, 1928, to his retirement from Ohio State University in June, 1942. He established the *Journal of Higher Education* and was its editor from 1930 to 1942. In both magazines his editorials upon many subjects appeared. Also prominent in connection with his editorship of the *Journal of Higher Education* was a series of quick surveys reporting findings obtained in response to questionnaires. They include "Sizing up the Faculty," December, 1940; "Remedial Reading in College," March, 1941; "General Survey Courses," January, 1942; and "How Much Do Professors Work?" June, 1942.

So much for the serious side of his interests. In the July, 1944, issue of *Journal of American Folklore*, we find his article "Paul Bunyan in 1910." This article is an outgrowth of a long-continued interest in Paul and his Blue Ox. That interest was so keen that he had acquired one of the best existing collections of Paul Bunyan literature in the country.

These somewhat random remarks have resulted from the compilation of a bibliography of Mr. Charters' writings. That bibliography would cover many pages if it were published. If book reviews and editorials were included it would total some five hundred items. All in all, it makes for an interesting record of the developing interests of an unusual man and educator.

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The Organizer

By EDGAR DALE

THE Institute for Education by Radio, now the Institute for Education by Radio and Television, was held for the first time almost twenty-three years ago. Mr. Charters' part in organizing and developing the Institute was a very great one. The Institute had an origin related to the Ohio School of the Air, directed by Ben Darrow. In one of the gatherings held by Mr. Darrow there was discussion of holding an international meeting which would bring together persons interested in education by radio. The idea was taken hold of by Mr. Charters, and a committee consisting of Charters, Cline M. Koon, Ben Darrow, Robert Higgy, and the writer met regularly to plan the program. I was the first secretary of the Radio Institute.

We conceived the Institute as a kind of workshop. It was to last ten days and to bring to Columbus able persons in a variety of fields. H. C. Kaltenborn, R. S. Lambert of the British Broadcasting Corporation, Morse Salisbury of the United States Department of Agriculture, and Judith C. Waller of the National Broadcasting Corporation were among our first group. Sixty persons were registered the first year. Ten days proved too long a period of time for the Institute, so we decided to cut it down to a three-day meeting.

The form and the tone of the Radio Institute were significantly shaped by Mr. Charters. The Institute was to be an organization that did not take sides. And this was in a period when there was sharp antagonism between the educational broadcaster and the commercial broadcaster, a hostility which time has dulled but not eliminated.

The late Hillis Lumley was the second secretary of the Institute until his untimely death in 1934. Since 1936 the Radio Institute has been under the direction of I. Keith Tyler. It has grown from an initial membership of 60 to an all-time high in 1947 of 1,239.

In 1949 Mr. Charters was made a lifetime member of the Institute for Education by Radio. On that occasion was read the following tribute from the members of the Twenty-second Institute honoring him as a great educator and leader:

For your continuous inspiration that stimulates the maximum effort from all with whom you work—

For your vision that sets goals for far-reaching endeavor and that gives inspiration and perspective to everyday activities—

For your imagination that stimulates the breaking of new trails and the establishment of new ventures—

For your friendliness that encourages all who know you to seek your counsel and assistance—

For your practical bent that finds a technique for solving the most difficult problem—

And for your humanity that places human values first in all your associations—

For all these enduring qualities which you possess in abundance, we who have known you honor and love you.

Educational Research Bulletin

MARCH 11, 1953

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Non-Credit Algebra as Preparation for Later Mathematics Courses

By JOHN R. KINZER AND LYDIA GREENE KINZER

AMONG 1,244 students who enrolled for Mathematics 421 at Ohio State University in the fall quarter, 1946, there were 89 students who either had not taken a course in high-school algebra or had failed to pass the placement examination in that subject. Before taking the first course in college algebra (Mathematics 421) these students had been required to take Mathematics 401.

The descriptions of these two courses given in the University Catalogue for 1946 are as follows:

Mathematics 401. Elementary Algebra. No credit hours. One quarter.

This course is designed for students entering the University without having had high-school algebra, and for those students who failed the proficiency examination which is prerequisite to Mathematics 421. The following topics are covered: signed and literal numbers, fractions, factoring, graphs, simultaneous equations, quadratic equations.

Mathematics 421. College Algebra. Five credit hours. One quarter.

Prerequisite, Mathematics 401, 404, or the equivalent.

Exponents and radicals, graphs, theory of quadratic equations, determinants of third and fourth orders, ratio, proportion, variation, logarithms, arithmetic progressions, geometric progressions, compound interest and annuities, permutations, combinations, binomial theorem, probability, partial fractions.

Of the 89 students, 52 had completed Mathematics 401 in the quarter just preceding enrollment in Mathematics 421. The students were from the following colleges:

	Number of Students	Per Cent of Group
Engineering	46	51.7
Arts and Sciences	29	32.6
Agriculture	10	11.2
Education	4	4.5

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF MATHEMATICS MARKS FOR 89 STUDENTS WHO TOOK
MATHEMATICS 401 BEFORE TAKING MATHEMATICS 421 DURING
AUTUMN QUARTER, 1946

Marks in Subsequent Mathematics Courses	Per Cent Receiving the Indicated Marks in Mathematics 401					Per Cent of Original Group
	A	B	C	D	E	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Math. 421—						
A	2.2	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.4
B	5.6	1.1	1.1	0.0	0.0	7.9
C	10.1	14.6	10.1	1.1	2.2	38.2
D	4.5	5.6	10.1	1.1	1.1	22.5
E	2.2	7.9	12.4	3.4	2.2	28.1
Math. 422—						
A	3.4	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.5
B	5.6	1.1	0.0	0.0	1.1	7.9
C	11.2	10.1	7.9	1.1	1.1	31.5
D	1.1	4.5	4.5	2.2	1.1	13.5
E	1.1	3.4	7.9	0.0	0.0	11.2
Not taken	2.2	10.1	13.5	2.2	2.2	30.3
Math. 423—						
A	1.1	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.2
B	2.2	2.2	1.1	0.0	0.0	5.6
C	2.2	3.4	2.2	1.1	2.2	11.2
D	6.7	4.5	3.4	0.0	0.0	14.6
E	1.1	3.4	2.2	0.0	1.1	7.9
Not taken	11.2	15.7	24.7	4.5	2.2	58.4
Math. 441—						
A	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
B	1.1	2.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.4
C	5.6	3.4	2.2	1.1	2.2	14.6
D	1.1	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0	2.2
E	1.1	2.2	2.2	0.0	1.1	6.7
Not taken	15.7	22.5	28.1	4.5	2.2	73.0
Math. 442—						
A	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1
B	0.0	2.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.2
C	3.4	0.0	1.1	0.0	1.1	5.6
D	0.0	1.1	2.2	0.0	0.0	3.4
E	0.0	2.2	0.0	0.0	1.1	3.4
Not taken	20.2	24.7	30.3	5.6	3.4	84.3
Math. 443—						
A	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1
B	2.2	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.4
C	2.2	1.1	1.1	0.0	0.0	4.5
D	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
E	0.0	1.1	1.1	0.0	1.1	3.4
Not taken	20.2	25.8	31.5	5.6	4.5	87.6

The mean score of these 89 students on the Ohio State Psychological Examination was at the 54.8 percentile. The whole group—1,244 students—in Mathematics 421 had a mean score at the 63.4 percentile.

Judged on the basis of scores on the Ohio State Psychological Examination, this group is not different from the usual freshman group of students, but they fall slightly below the O.S.P.E. scores of the group taking College Algebra. The chief deficiency of this group is apparently the lack of knowledge and skill presumed to be obtained in the high-school course.

In Table I it is possible to follow these 89 students through six quarters of college mathematics. These courses are: College Algebra (Mathematics 421), Trigonometry (Mathematics 422), Analytic Geometry (Mathematics 423), and a three-quarter sequence in Calculus (Mathematics 441, 442, 443).

Table I shows that the students who do poorly in Mathematics 401 seldom go beyond Mathematics 421. Those who

TABLE II
THE PERCENTAGE OF EACH GROUP OF STUDENTS FAILING IN
SUBSEQUENT MATHEMATICS COURSES

MATHEMATICS COURSES BY NUMBER	STUDENTS WHO HAD MATHEMATICS 401		ALL STUDENTS TAKING MATHEMATICS 421	
	Number Taking Course	Per Cent to Fail	Number Taking Course	Per Cent to Fail
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
421	89	28.1	1,244	12.5
422	61	16.4	978	7.9
423	37	18.9	693	12.3
441	24	25.0	536	9.1
442	14	21.4	416	8.7
443	11	27.3	326	7.1

continue make relatively poor marks in the advanced courses. Fewer and fewer students continue through Calculus. Only 11 of the 89 went through the three quarters of Calculus and three of them failed the last quarter of Calculus. Eight students out of 89 successfully completed the entire six quarters in mathematics.

In Table II are shown the percentages of failures for the students who took Mathematics 401 and for the larger group of which they are a part. A comparison of the percentages for each subsequent course shows a large proportion of failures among the students who had to take Mathematics 401. Apparently the mathematical skill or information gained from this make-up course is not sufficient to guarantee a promising mathematical future.

Does Teaching Appeal to the Better Student?

By RALPH E. HEIGES

WHEN a person engaged in teacher education attends a conference involving public-school teachers, he often hears, "You people preparing teachers take everyone into college and graduate all of them." The implication appears to be that little selection is made. If that is true, something should be done and done quickly. Throughout the country there is evidence of improvement in courses for the preparing of teachers. Pennsylvania institutions have added faculty and facilities to keep pace. Although many things are needed to improve the teaching profession, nothing will improve its standing more than the high quality of the people who enter it. Fundamentally, the best high-school students must be convinced of the advantages and rewards of teaching. Then, the colleges must assume their responsibilities.

There appears to be evidence, widely disseminated, that the teaching profession does not appeal to a large proportion of the best high-school students. No attempt is being made to cover the country-wide situation in this paper. We are, however, considering the students graduated from one of the state teachers' colleges of Pennsylvania. There is no attempt to compare the quality of graduates within different professions or within colleges. Here the experience of one college is reported.

The group studied includes the 516 students who entered the Indiana State Teachers College in September, 1949. Some have already graduated through acceleration. It is presumed that all those in college in March, 1953, will be graduated in May or during the following summer. It is also assumed for purposes of this study that all those not now enrolled at Indiana will not eventually be graduated. All students now in college are tabulated in the curriculum from which they will be graduated.

In the interests of clarification it should be noted that the college operates under the admission standards established by the Board of Presidents of the State Teachers Colleges. The scholarship requirements may be summarized as either of two criteria, graduation in the upper half of the high-school class

or the passing of a scholastic aptitude test with a score equal to the median of a high-school Senior.

A college committee on admissions and professional standards supervises admission. It also directs the continuance of students in college. At the end of the sophomore year each student applies for junior standing and the committee makes a complete and formal check of each application. Areas of academic scholarship, English, health, speech, personality, and achievement tests in English, general culture, and contemporary affairs are considered. A fifth semester may be allowed for the purpose of clearing deficiencies, but there are definite standards that must be met. We at Indiana think the standards not only are fair but are also in the interests of the student.

THE response to the question, Does teaching appeal to the good student in high school? must be affirmative. The following table shows that 53 per cent of the 1949 Freshmen came from the upper quarter of their high-school classes:

	Rank in High-School Class	Number in Quarter	Per Cent in Quarter	Per Cent Graduated
1st quarter	271	53	63
2nd quarter	134	26	63
3rd quarter	73	14	40
4th quarter	38	7	26
Total	516	..	57

One out of every three of these students stood first, second, third, fourth, or fifth in his high-school class. Twenty-six per cent were in the second quarter, leaving only 21 per cent in the lower half. Only 7 per cent came from the fourth quarter and these were screened through an entrance test.

Details are given for each of the six curriculums of the college in Table I. Certain variations appear. For years the music department has lived in cramped quarters and the enrollment of only one applicant out of two was possible—hence great selectivity was necessary. Also, since music requires highly skilled preliminary training, additional guidance facilities were available to music applicants. In any event, only 12 per cent of the music students came from the lower half. Turning to the department of secondary education, we find that 31 per cent were from the lower quarters. This is the curriculum into which students often go when the objectives of their programs are uncertain.

An answer to the question, Does high school rank appear

TABLE I
STUDENTS BY HIGH-SCHOOL RANK IN EACH COLLEGE CURRICULUM
SHOWING PERCENTAGE GRADUATED

Rank in High-School Class	Per Cent in Quarter	Per Cent Graduated	Rank in High-School Class	Per Cent in Quarter	Per Cent Graduated
(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
Art (41 students)—			Home Economics (51 students)—		
1st Quarter . . .	46	68	1st Quarter . . .	65	60
2nd Quarter . . .	22	66	2nd Quarter . . .	31	56
3rd Quarter . . .	22	22	3rd Quarter . . .	4	100
4th Quarter . . .	10	25	4th Quarter . . .		
Total		54	Total		60
Business (83 students)—			Music (64 students)—		
1st Quarter . . .	63	58	1st Quarter . . .	58	76
2nd Quarter . . .	16	70	2nd Quarter . . .	30	84
3rd Quarter . . .	14	33	3rd Quarter . . .	8	80
4th Quarter . . .	7	50	4th Quarter . . .	4	
Total		55	Total		75
Elementary-School Teaching (139 students)—			Secondary-School Teaching (138 students)—		
1st Quarter . . .	55	66	1st Quarter . . .	38	53
2nd Quarter . . .	24	58	2nd Quarter . . .	31	59
3rd Quarter . . .	16	32	3rd Quarter . . .	17	43
4th Quarter . . .	5	28	4th Quarter . . .	14	22
Total		57	Total		49

to determine success in college? is found in the percentages of the total group of 516 students. Sixty-three per cent of those in each of the two upper quarters (170 students and 85 students) were graduated. In some college curriculums it was the second-quarter high-school graduates who had the greatest staying power in college. Note also that only 29 students (40 per cent) from the third quarter and 10 students (26 per cent) from the fourth quarter held on to the end in spite of the screening process at the start. Evidently selectivity is a continuous feature of college education.

Apparently nothing succeeds like success. Again, glance at the figures for the music and secondary curriculums. Music, with 88 per cent from the upper half of high-school classes and with other selective processes operating, graduated a higher percentage than did secondary. Also, the all-college totals by quarters show that only ten persons of the 38 entering from the lowest quarter were graduated. Perhaps we expend too much effort at Indiana in attempting to salvage this small proportion of the group.

TABLE II
STUDENTS BY HIGH-SCHOOL RANK AND QUARTILE ON AMERICAN COUNCIL
ON EDUCATION PSYCHOLOGICAL EXAMINATION, SHOWING NUMBER
AND PERCENTAGE GRADUATING*

RANK IN HIGH-SCHOOL CLASS	QUARTILES IN THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION PSYCHOLOGICAL EXAMINATION			
	0-25		26-50	
	Number of Students	Per Cent Graduated	Number of Students	Per Cent Graduated
1st Quarter	48	54	53	58
2nd Quarter	39	56	39	64
3rd Quarter	22	27	22	41
4th Quarter	23	13	10	50
Total	132	43	124	56
	51-75		76-100	
	Number of Students	Per Cent Graduated	Number of Students	Per Cent Graduated
1st Quarter	69	58	90	77
2nd Quarter	35	66	14	72
3rd Quarter	13	46	10	40
4th Quarter	2	50	2	100
Total	119	59	116	73

* Records do not show test score for 25 students.

THE scores which the students of the 1949 group made on the American Council on Education Examination were studied in relation to their high-school ranks. Table II shows that 73 per cent of those students who scored in the upper quartile of the A.C.E. test remained till graduation, while only 43 per cent of the lowest quartile held fast. Probably high-school success is a better guide than a placement test in determining whether a student will do college work. Considering both rank in high school and A.C.E. quartiles, it should be noted that only 3 students (1 per cent) of the 294 graduating were in the lowest quartile in both.

Incidental to the main purpose of this study, the students' records were tabulated according to the size of the high-school graduating class. Surprisingly enough, over 313 (60 per cent) of the Indiana students were from schools graduating over one hundred. The size of the class, however, had little effect in predicting college success. If anything, there is a slight edge for the large high school. Perhaps this is a good omen in view of the jointures which are now producing the larger administrative units.

In summary it can be said that in the experience of one

teachers' college, approximately four-fifths of the students come from the upper half of the high-school enrollment and about 87 per cent of the graduates are from this group. In addition, it should be remembered that 57 per cent of those entering received certificates to teach, which in itself is evidence of selection.

OF THE 516 students who entered in the fall of 1949, there were 222 individuals who left college before graduation. Sixty-four per cent of these students left by the beginning of the sophomore year. That is, 28 per cent of those enrolling in 1949 had withdrawn by September, 1950. The following table shows the students' percentage of withdrawal each semester:

Semester	Per Cent
First	23
Second	41
Third	13
Fourth	13
Fifth	5
Sixth	5
Seventh	1

The operation of the junior-standing process at Indiana seems to predict that there will be little withdrawal after the close of the sophomore year.

When we ask why these students withdrew, we are somewhat in the realm of conjecture. A student often hides behind excuses. He may claim that finances are his problem when actually he has made no friends and finds college forbidding. Or he may say his draft board is after him when it is communication and science courses that are bothering him. The reasons given by these 222 students for leaving college are summarized as follows:

	Per Cent
Health	5
Finances	5
Home problems	4
Military service	5
Marriage	11
"Not interested"	16
Scholastic	18
N.P. R*	17
N.P. R.* junior standing	8
Not known	11

* N.P. R. is an abbreviation for the phrase "not permitted to register."

Some explanation of the classifications in this table is in order. "Home problems" may be caused by death, injury, or illness

in the immediate family. Scholastic reasons cover the group that at the time of withdrawal did not have a *C* average but furnished no reason for withdrawal. The college did not forbid, nor did it encourage, these individuals to return. "Not interested" includes the students with changing objectives, which frequently brought about a shift to another college. "N.P.R." refers to those not permitted to register, chiefly for scholastic reasons and previous to the action on junior standing. "N.P.R. junior standing" may include any of the phases of junior standing; it is not confined to scholastic reasons alone.

With these explanations in mind let us examine the reasons for withdrawal. Several of the groups might be considered as beyond student control—"Health," "Finances," and "Home Problems." These account for 14 per cent of the withdrawals. "Military service" drew 5 per cent which might also fall in this group although this reason is often used as an escape mechanism. The high number (11 per cent) withdrawing for marriage is probably owing to the advent of the Korean War. Under "Not interested" are many who changed objectives and transferred to become laboratory technicians, dietitians, business men, secretaries, and the like. It is hoped that Indiana helped these 35 persons—one of every six who withdrew—find their places.

"Scholastic," "N.P.R.," and "N.P.R. Junior Standing"—withdrawals recommended by the college—were the reasons 97 persons (43 per cent) left. The attempt was made to assist these students to attain other objectives; here, at least, we observe some recognition of the responsibility of the college to the profession.

Some of the 26 persons giving no reason for withdrawal left during the first semester. Since classmates did not know them, probably this number included many who were unsocial and would not have been adapted to teaching.

THUS we find that one teachers' college has had the experience of preparing a group of capable young persons to enter the teaching profession. Can it be said that high-school standing is a measure of ability? If so, then we find that 87 per cent of those graduating were from the upper half of the class. Does the college hold the better students? On college placement tests 53 per cent who graduated were in the upper

half based on national norms. And 65 per cent of those students from the lower half of the high-school class did not finish.

Here we see the selective process for the teaching profession in operation. Other institutions in the commonwealth are striving to prepare better teachers. Confident that a job is being done, teachers' colleges ask that the best possible students be sent to them.

[Vol. XXXII, No. 3]

The Influence of Academic Standing upon Success in Student Teaching

By C. L. MAJOR

NOT long ago a head of one of the departments of Denison University called to discuss with the writer the criteria used by the Department of Education for rating student-teachers. When the procedure of evaluation had been explained, I accepted it as reasonable but raised a further question implying bias in the rating of student-teachers in certain subject areas where the academic record of students was higher than average. Knowing that all human beings are likely to be biased, consciously or unconsciously, on almost any topic, I accepted the challenge to study the problem in the hope of satisfying the professor and of providing the members of the Department of Education with a more objective idea of how our rating of student-teachers in the several areas varied, and how this variation was related, if at all, to their academic records.

A random sampling of two hundred students who had completed student teaching was taken from the files of the Education Department. The sample included twenty students from each of the following teaching areas: English, history, language, mathematics, music, natural science, physical science, physical education for men, physical education for women, and social science. The academic record as well as the student-teaching record of each student-teacher was then reduced to a point-hour ratio. The average point-hour ratio both in student-teaching and in academic standing for each of the ten groups was then determined. From these averages the graph reproduced in Figure 1 was constructed.

Certain things stand out clearly in the graph. In the first place, the total academic college record of student-teachers in mathematics was only slightly higher than that of men teaching physical education. Yet, the average rating of student-teachers in mathematics was the highest of the ten groups, the twenty women teaching physical education being their closest competitors. In the second place, while it was clear that the group with the highest academic rating was the language group, the rank of this group in student teaching was next to the bottom, being robbed of the "booby" by the group in physical science. In the third place, with the exception of the language group, there is

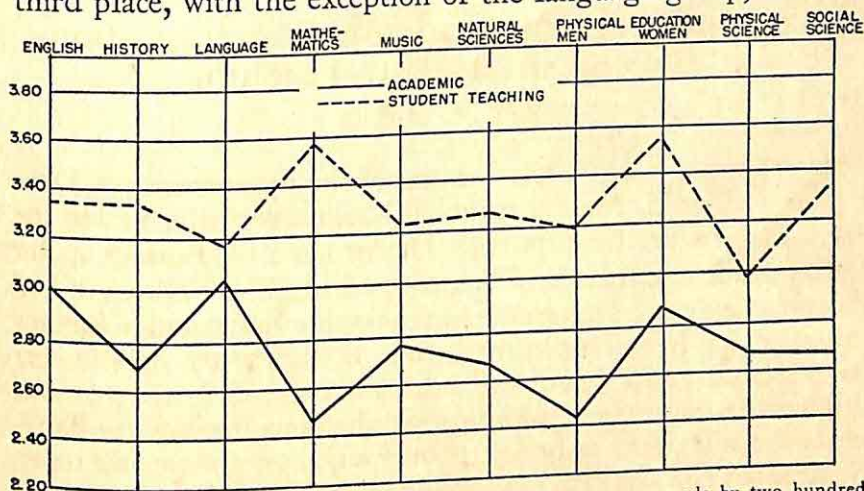


Fig. 1. The average point-hour ratios in total college courses made by two hundred students compared with their records in student teaching.

a considerable gap between the average point-hour rating of the academic record and that of the student-teaching record. The average width of this gap is .52 of a point, or about the equivalent of half the difference between two letter-grades.

If one assumes a close relationship between academic standing and teaching success, then it will appear that this department has been guilty of marked bias, operating on the one hand, for example, to mark up the achievement of student-teachers in mathematics, and, on the other hand, to underrate students teaching in the languages. But this assumption does not appear to be valid, because the coefficient of correlation between academic standing and student-teacher ratings, for the two hundred in this study, turned out to be only $-.016 \pm .07$. This indicates

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Investigations of Teacher Supply and Demand Reported in 1952

By R. H. ELIASSEN AND EARL W. ANDERSON

THE following quotation indicates the seriousness of the present situation in regard to the supply of and the demand for teachers:

With a 50 per cent expansion of the elementary school population already well under way, and with a like expansion of the high school population soon impending, the task of arousing the public to aggressive action (in providing an adequate supply of well trained teachers) is the responsibility of every professional worker (36).

In 1952 we were no nearer to a solution of the problem than we had been the preceding year; however, some progress had been made. Although there is an increasing awareness of the seriousness of the situation, it will take herculean efforts to meet the predicted demands for thousands of additional teachers as well as greatly increased housing facilities.

Whereas the ratio of demand to supply remained about the same in the elementary-school field in 1952, the surplus of secondary-school teachers which existed in most subjects was reduced or eliminated. When the large enrollments resulting from the high birth rates of the war years begins to affect the high schools, there will be a serious shortage of secondary-school teachers unless students in training are guided into the areas in which the demand is greatest.

The most significant study of teacher supply and demand—increasingly becoming the official investigation of this problem—is the one made by Maul (37), who has also conducted a number of related studies stemming from the main investigation (2, 34, 35, 36, 38). In New York, New Jersey, and Wyoming, continuous studies have been carried on over a period of years (20, 39, 49). Important investigations were made in Indiana by Richey and others, and by Wendholt. Richey's group continued a series of investigations of the factors high-school students associate with teaching as a vocation (47). Wendholt made a very thorough and most extensive state-wide study of teacher supply and demand which is reported in 400 pages, with 125 charts (58).

Another of the continuous studies made in this area since 1946 is sponsored by Phi Delta Kappa, professional educational fraternity. It features the recruitment angle (32). Portland, Oregon, reported an ambitious and seemingly efficient program of re-educating high-school teachers to become elementary-school teachers in a city system (16). Probably additional states have set up such conversion programs since 1951 in addition to the 13 reported for that year (19). Kansas described a successful state-wide system of teacher recruitment (Teacher Reserve Mobilization Program) jointly sponsored by the state education association and the state teachers' colleges. The state is divided into five regions, each with a state-supported teachers' college as a pivot; each region is thoroughly canvassed for teacher recruits (27, 52).

INFORMATION about the supply of teachers and the demand for them was presented by placement officers of Ohio State University and Indiana University (42, 29). In two issues of its *Research Bulletin* the National Education Association presented an analysis of teacher personnel practices throughout the United States in 1950-51 (40, 41).

Maul predicted that by September, 1952, there would be ten thousand qualified teachers needed to relieve overcrowding, twenty thousand to meet the increased enrollment, sixty thousand to replace the annual losses from dropouts from the profession, and seventy thousand to replace the worst of the undertrained. The total reached indicated that one hundred sixty thousand qualified teachers were needed. To meet this demand, the colleges succeeded in preparing only one-fifth of the number needed for that year: 32,443. In other words, not more than one out of five positions to be vacated could be filled by a qualified teacher graduating from college in 1952. The remaining four positions would have to be filled by retaining partially qualified teachers, inducing former teachers—some fully and some only partially qualified—to return to the profession, redirecting teachers prepared for other types of teaching into elementary-school teaching, temporarily licensing persons with general college training but with no professional preparation for any kind of teaching, and continuing to employ teachers completely unfitted to conduct the education of children (37).

Representing the National Education Association, Givens gave the following estimate of the number of teachers needed:

- 100,000 new teachers to reduce class-size
- 40,000 new teachers to replace emergency teachers who cannot qualify in a reasonable time
- 158,000 new teachers to replace those who cannot readily meet the four-year standard
- 75,000 new teachers to fill annual vacancies
- 15,000 new teachers to meet the rising enrollments (23)

This totals 388,000 new teachers. These figures are not necessarily in disagreement with those of Maul, who indicated the minimum demand only.

Bowers has stated that the greatest need for teachers in 1952 shifted from the rural elementary to the urban elementary centers. The urban situation is complicated by the fact that the trend toward publicly supported kindergartens is taking some of the best teachers away from the elementary schools (53). As usual, the need for men teachers is stressed (17), and it is recommended that schools be given higher priority by those concerned with manpower (23). It appears from the Ohio State study that the demand for college teachers was lower than it had been in recent years (42). Hammer reported that the teacher shortage which is so prevalent in this country at the present time is really a world-wide phenomenon. He believes that

. . . as long as education fails to match business and industry in the struggle to attract and hold high caliber personnel, the teacher supply problem will continue to be acute. . . . The fact is, however, that in spite of our knowledge of the increasing need [due to increased birth rate] there is little indication of our having more teachers in the years ahead (25).

Niederhauser's statement of the demand-supply situation as analyzed at Ohio State University is typical of the situation in the country as a whole:

The demand for elementary-school teachers was the highest in the history of the Division of Appointments. In contrast with conditions during the previous two years, there was an unusually high demand for secondary-school teachers in most subject-matter areas. The demand for school administrators continued to be high, particularly for supervisors and principals, in both elementary and secondary schools. On the whole, the placement of college teachers was more difficult than at any time during the previous five years.

In the secondary-school fields, music was the subject in greatest demand, with English a close second. The calls for English teachers were 50 per cent more numerous than during the previous year. Other secondary-school subjects in order of demand were: commercial subjects, mathematics, science, industrial arts, men's physical education, women's physical education, and social studies. Special education received more calls than in previous years. Latin had more calls than any other foreign language (42).

The Indiana University Bureau of Teacher Recommendations noted a critical shortage in elementary-school teaching. The demand in the high schools absorbed most of the available teachers; the few who were not able to find positions in high schools qualified for temporary certificates for elementary-school teaching. In colleges, there was an oversupply in some liberal-arts fields, in physical education for men, and in music. Shortages of college teachers were found in home economics, chemistry, physics, biological sciences, elementary education, business administration, and educational psychology. The demand for well-prepared instructors for Negro colleges was far greater than the supply (29).

A NUMBER of investigators have, as usual, listed what appear to be the main causes for the continued serious shortage of teachers. These for the most part were similar to those listed in previous summaries. Some of the reasons most frequently mentioned were:

Students, in both high school and college, have inadequate and, in many cases, inaccurate information about teaching (5, 7, 13, 15, 43, 47).

Teachers' salaries are too low (17, 25, 32).

Beginning teachers are given inadequate orientation to teaching (50, 53).

The public in general is indifferent toward teaching (12).

Working conditions for teachers are too often unsatisfactory (12).

The failure to orient new teachers needs particular stress because it seems to be one of the forgotten factors in teacher supply. Russell states that the problem of teacher supply is both a question of how to get teachers and also how to keep them once they are secured. He claims that many fine teachers leave the profession each year who might have been salvaged if proper steps had been taken to hold them. He contends that

happiness on the job, opportunities for professional growth, outlets for initiative and creativeness, and freedom from tensions and petty politics in the schools are four aspects that need to be stressed in every teaching situation. New teachers should get a warm welcome into the school and the community, and should be made to feel wanted and important.

The teacher shortage may not be as great as it seems if we all pitch in and do our part of the job. Let's do our best to make as many good teachers as possible out of the seventy thousand undertrained, reduce the number of annual walkouts, hold on to those thirty thousand or more graduates that the colleges have produced for 1952. These are our teachers. They want the joy of teaching, the joy of living in a good community, the opportunity for professional growth, and the chance to do a good job and put into practice what they have learned (50).

Bowers makes a similar plea when he states that not only must we induce more good high-school graduates to consider elementary teaching but steps must be taken to conserve the supply already on hand. In his judgment, too many new teachers drop out of teaching because of conditions that could be improved with better supervision and more attention to the adjustment of beginning teachers (53). Vick found that only 65 per cent of the teacher-education graduates of the Illinois state teachers' colleges accepted teaching positions (57).

SEVEN somewhat novel factors that influence the demand for teachers are listed by Wendholt; namely, natality, mortality, migration, population, enrollment, progressive reduction of enrollments, and class-size. Most of these factors are self-explanatory, but *mortality* and *progressive reduction of enrollments* are terms which may need clarification in this context. This investigator has computed *mortality* as the number of children who die in their first year, and who are then subtracted from the natality figures. He discovered, however, that the in-migration of children largely canceled this as an important factor. The *progressive reduction of enrollment* refers to the gradual reduction of pupils as they proceed through the grades. Thus, counting the first-grade enrollment as 100 per cent, the eighth-grade enrollment would be somewhat lower, and the twelfth-grade enrollment according to his computations would have an index of only 58.1 per cent (58).

MANY investigators make explicit recommendations for the improvement of the situation, and other recommendations are implied by the reports. Dangers of unwise action are: the risk of lowering standards (1, 12, 34, 39), the temptation to use short cuts to training, and the strong urge to increase pupil-teacher ratios.

Twelve recommendations, many of which have already been put in practice by individuals, schools, and colleges throughout the country, are important enough to list here.

1. There should be more vigorous teacher recruitment, particularly in the high schools (7, 32, 33, 36, 38, 43).

High school staff members, both teachers and administrators, are in an ideal position to help students thoughtfully weigh the facts and evaluate their own interests and aptitudes. Not only the future status of teaching as a profession but the continuance of the public school system as a major force in a democratic society will be determined by the attitudes and actions of the teachers, counselors, and administrators most intimately associated with the youth of the nation (36).

2. To cope with the problem more adequately, there is need for more state-wide studies of teacher recruitment and teacher supply and demand (7, 27, 52). Studies made continuously over a period of years are particularly valuable. New York, New Jersey, Ohio, Connecticut, Florida, and Wyoming, have conducted such studies.
3. Prospective teachers and teachers in training are in great need of constructive and intelligent guidance (11, 36, 43).
4. Future Teachers of America chapters and clubs are to be greatly encouraged in high schools and colleges (21, 32).

... FTA stands today on the threshold of greatness. It can meet the challenge of teacher shortage—if each state association joins with the NEA in helping youth to plan a statewide FTA program for colleges and high schools; if each local association undertakes to build strong college chapters and high school clubs; and if each chapter works with high schools, colleges, and educational associations to create a dynamic statewide FTA program . . .

The FTA high school club provides an action program through which we can increase the number of young people who will enter teacher training. If efficiently used, the club will serve to guide toward the teaching profession only those students who in aptitude, personality, and character offer the best promise of becoming worthy teachers (21).

5. Teacher remuneration needs to be increased (17, 25, 32, 41). Hammer asserts that for a profession such as teaching, salaries should be from five to six times the per capita income. As a matter

- of fact, they are only 1.9 times the per capita income. A study of twenty-five countries reveals that in less than one-half of them is the teacher's salary as much as three times the per capita income (25).
6. States need to practice more reciprocity in teacher certification (6, 14). Kentucky has taken the lead in making it possible for teachers to qualify more readily for teaching in states other than the ones in which they were trained (14).
 7. Plans for the re-education of high-school teachers to prepare them for teaching in the elementary schools need to be stressed. Not only will this provide more elementary-school teachers but it will enable teachers who might otherwise drop out of the profession to get valuable teaching experience (16).
 8. Year-round teacher-education programs should be increased (1). Such programs make it possible for the prospective teacher to complete his program more rapidly.
 9. More states should experiment with the so-called common curriculum (sometimes referred to as the unified or single curriculum) in which students preparing for elementary- and secondary-school teaching are able to qualify for either or both levels of teaching. Armstrong states, "if all the 109,000 teachers who completed their initial preparation last spring were qualified for the positions that needed to be filled, there would not now be a serious shortage" (4).
 10. Communities and schools should provide satisfactory teaching conditions (12). This is a recommendation that is closely associated with proper supervision and orientation to teaching as well as adjustment to the community.
 11. Public-relations programs of public schools should be improved (12).
 12. Teaching scholarships should be available to make college attendance possible for the needy student (30, 45). New York State has recently provided a lump sum of \$650,000 in its 1952-53 budget to be used for scholarships for deserving teacher candidates (46).

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EDITORIAL COMMENT

In-service Education: New Approaches

IN THE December 10 issue of the BULLETIN, we editorially discussed the need for a broader concept of in-service education of teachers. We argued that certification requirements and salary schedules have tended to overemphasize formal study in a teacher-education institution and that they should take account of other types of experience that contribute to professional growth. We noted the need for, and the difficulty of developing, adequate means of evaluating such experiences. Finally, we stated that certain recent developments offered suggestions as to how the problem might be attacked, and promised to discuss these in a future issue of the BULLETIN.

This editorial is written in fulfillment of that promise. Obviously, it is impossible in a few hundred words to deal adequately with the topic; to do so would require a book. The most that can be attempted here is to describe briefly a few of the efforts to meet this problem—efforts which offer suggestions to persons who are concerned about it.

One of the most noteworthy developments is the program of one-year fellowships for high-school teachers provided by the Fund for the Advancement of Education and in effect this year. This program is administered by a National Committee on High School Teacher Fellowships established by the Fund. One fellowship was offered in each of four hundred local school systems of different sizes and distributed throughout the country. Each of the four hundred superintendents was asked to appoint a local committee comprising one school administrator, one teacher, and "several able and representative citizens" to select the most appropriate candidate for the fellowship. Each candidate designed his own year's program and submitted it to the local committee. The committee nominated the recipient; the National Committee agreed to accept the nominees of the local committees "except where in its judgment, the specific plan of activities submitted falls outside the intent of the program." A plan which provided for advanced study of the major field or advanced courses in education was not acceptable.

Each grantee receives the amount of salary he would receive during the year, but not less than \$3,000, plus necessary travel and other incidental expenses.

This program is flexible enough to offer opportunity for many different types of activity. But, since the plan proposed by the teacher must be approved by both the local and national committees, there is insurance against acceptance of any mere "sight-seeing" plan. As a matter of long-range policy, the exclusion of advanced study of the major and of education courses would be unacceptable; these have an important place in in-service education. But at short range and as a corrective of the present overemphasis, ruling them out is probably justified. It is difficult to imagine any plan approved under this program that would not merit any salary increase or any upgrading of certificate that would be granted for a year of study under conventional plans.

ANOTHER plan that is suggestive is that recommended by Alfred D. Simpson and his associates for the schools of Hartford, Connecticut.¹ This plan provides, in addition to a salary schedule for "satisfactory" teachers, a scheme for additional salary increases for those who show competence above the "satisfactory" level and thus qualify for "competence-scale classification." To secure this rating, the teacher, besides carrying on the required formal in-service training, would have to make a score at or above the sixtieth percentile on the Common Examination of the National Teacher Examination, and secure a judgment from the Board of Review that all other aspects of his competence were within the upper 40 per cent of the competence range of Hartford teachers.

The Board of Review would consist of three persons "competent in the selection, training, and evaluation of teachers, and with suitable training therefor," at least two of whom are from outside the Hartford system. One would be chosen by the superintendent of schools, another by the Staff Council on Personnel Development, and the third by the other two. The judgment of the Board concerning the competence of a teacher would be based upon an examination of cumulative personnel

¹ "Survey of Instructional and Administrative Salaries, Hartford Public Schools." Cambridge, Massachusetts: Center of Research and Field Studies, Harvard Graduate School of Education, 1948. For a fuller discussion of this plan, see "Higher Salaries for Superior Teachers," *EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN*, XXVIII (March 16, 1949), pp. 77-78, 84.

records; interviews with teachers concerned, and with administrators, supervisors, and personnel staff; observation of the teacher's work; and such other materials and procedures as the Board might see fit to use. Since the majority of the Board members would be from outside the Hartford system, the work of the Board would do much to avoid the difficulties that are likely to arise when supervisors' ratings of teachers are used as a basis for salary increases.

THE schools of Champaign, Illinois, have a plan by which educational travel, work experience, study of professional books, authorship, educational experimentation or research, auditing college courses, and participation in workshops or clinics are translated into the equivalent of semester-hours of credit. The evaluation of these experiences is in the hands of an evaluation committee consisting of the superintendent of schools as chairman and six teachers. Of the teacher members, two each are elected by elementary school, junior-high school, and senior-high school teachers. Each member serves two years, half the terms expiring each year. In evaluating the experiences the committee must conform to standards prescribed by the board of education.

One of the most effective means of in-service education, which has increased greatly in recent years, is the workshop. One of the many examples of utilizing the workshop is provided by the Baltimore schools. For the past six years they have been conducting workshops on various topics to supplement the conventional system of in-service training. These carry no college credit but do carry a small amount of salary-scale credit. In 1952, for example, there was a workshop in which some twelve hundred teachers devoted a week to hearing about and visiting business and industrial establishments of the city. Such an experience must have been more valuable to many of the participants than a full summer's conventional in-service education would have been.

These are a few of the plans that attempt to correct the overemphasis on conventional in-service education. Each offers suggestions for dealing with an important problem—a problem whose solution calls for the best efforts of the profession.

R. H. E.



READINGS



Books to Read

MARTIN, MICHAEL, AND GELBER, LEONARD. *The New Dictionary of American History*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1952. vi+695 pp.

The reviewer tested this book by looking for significant Ohio items and found these not listed: Moravians, Schoenbrunn, Marietta, Rufus Putnam, Fort Ancient, Zane's Trace, Seven Ranges, Virginia Military Tract, Zoar, Simon Girty, Thomas Ewing, Thomas Corwin, Clement L. Vallandigham, Theodore Weld, Washington Gladden, Daniel Decatur Emmett (or "Dixie"), and others. While some of these can be found under other headings, only the specialist would know where to look. Among the inaccuracies and misstatements, the following may be cited: Ohio was "discovered in 1749 by a French officer, Celeron" (page 450), which would astonish that "discoverer," who was sent to warn off English traders; Connecticut granted from her Western Reserve "500,000 acres on Long Island Sound" (page 666) to compensate her Revolutionary War sufferers (presumably the Firelands of northern Ohio); Secretaries Fall and Denby and Charles R. Forbes of the Veterans Bureau were members of the "Ohio Gang" of Harding infamy.

With a few exceptions, chiefly presidents, biographies give only the year and the state of the subject's birth, and no items are provided with references. Far too much space is allotted to recent figures, yet James M. Cox, Alfred M. Landon, Speakers Rayburn and Martin, and Senators Nixon and Sparkman are omitted. General MacArthur gets 33 lines, Eleanor Roosevelt 20, William McKinley 16. The book contains much useful information but will hardly serve as a substitute for the older five-volume *Dictionary of American History*, of which this is neither a revision nor a condensation, in spite of its title.

EUGENE H. ROSEBOOM

KAPP, K. WILLIAM, AND KAPP, LORE L. *A Graphic Approach to Economics*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1951. xviii+174 pp.

Charts, graphs, diagrams, and pictograms are a great help in teaching economics. Many of the basic relationships can be skillfully dramatized by them, especially when used by an imaginative and creative teacher. The authors of this volume have prepared an anthology of visual aids which have already been used in the published literature. They have furnished an introduction to each of the fields of economics and for each of the charts, maps, and so on. In their preface they have pointed out the use and limitations of the graphic method. Finally, they have provided in an appendix a source list for films, filmstrips, and books making extensive use of graphic methods.

There are some important faults which should be indicated. They have deliberately left out price theory and firm analysis because these are usually illustrated in the textbooks. It is true, they are, but usually with little imagination. They have therefore omitted a section on a topic which is perhaps the most challenging and most needed. While most of the data is recent, some variations in dates would require special caution. Most of the charts

are simple enough, but a few of them are much too complicated (for example, those on the flow of spending and earning and the national income). There is a section on the "Problems of Economic Mobilization" but little to indicate the changed nature of the free-market economy during a mobilization. Another serious omission is a lack of charts, and so on, illustrating the workings of an economic system, one of the most difficult family of ideas to convey. Yet it is possible to do much with diagrams by way of explanation of the price system or planning.

MENO LOVENSTEIN

TINKER, MILES A. *Teaching Elementary Reading*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952. xii+351 pp.

There is a vast professional literature on the subject of the teaching of reading—so vast, in fact, that at times one may wish for a moratorium on any further writing that is not distinctively original in the field of research or of philosophical ideas or of innovating practices. While this book does not—and makes no pretense to, at this point—project new ideas or findings, it is a precise, succinct, readable presentation of how to carry on a well-balanced developmental reading program in the elementary school.

Tinker defines reading thus:

Reading involves the recognition of printed or written symbols which serve as stimuli for the recall of meanings built up through past experience, and the construction of new meanings through manipulation of concepts already possessed by the reader. The resulting meanings are organized into thought processes according to the clearly defined purposes of the reader. Such an organization leads to modified behavior, or else leads to new behavior which takes its place, either in personal or in social development (page 11). From this viewpoint, he has included particularly interesting chapters on reading readiness, word recognition, word meanings, the development of comprehension, and appraisal of growth in reading.

If elementary-school teachers creatively put into practice the principles for teaching reading which Tinker proposes, many children would have healthier and happier experiences in learning to read.

LELAND B. JACOBS

BRUBACHER, JOHN S., editor. *Eclectic Philosophy of Education*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951. viii+520 pp.

As indicated by the title, this is a survey of education presented in selections from the writings of outstanding thinkers mostly of today, although the classic writers from Plato to Spencer and Newman receive some notice. The space allotted them is small: Plato, one-half page; Aristotle, one-third; Kant, four; Spencer, one; Horace Mann, two, and so on. Dewey receives most space, with 31 citations, totaling about 75 pages. Next comes Horne with 31 citations, Kilpatrick with 14, Childs with 8, and so on down to Elliott, Freeman, and A. L. Lowell with 3 each.

The topics cover a wide range from the philosophy of education to techniques of method, curriculum, discipline, moral and religious aspects. The book constitutes an anthology of passages on essential problems which may be used to gain a glimpse of what has been said on educational issues without attempting to master the whole of the vast literature. Such use would of course have its weaknesses as well as its advantages, affording possibly a pseudo

mastery of the field. The editor has evidently ranged widely over many pastures. The volume would best be used as a guide to further reading for the specialist in education, and as a series of suggestions to the non-specialist for a glimpse of the topics and perspectives included in the educational field.

ALBERT E. AVEY

COOK, LLOYD ALLEN. *Intergroup Relations in Teacher Education*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1951. xvi+271 pp.

This book is the second volume of a two-volume report concerning the College Study of Intergroup Relations sponsored by the American Council on Education. The first volume, *College Programs in Intergroup Relations*, describes specific college programs; the second volume presents an analytical study of the theory and practice of intergroup education that is not confined to the data obtained from the College Study.

The author examines three approaches to the study of intergroup relations: academic education, group-process teaching, and community education. He concludes that the second and third methods are more promising than the first in promoting the goals of intergroup education.

In making his comparisons, however, Mr. Cook tends to create a curious "straw man" as he describes academic education. He characterizes this method of education as one in which the teacher relies upon authority, the learner reacts with a "wall" of silence, and the class as a whole "... has no goal that is common, being dependent on the teacher to motivate its actions" (page 90). Yet, the author states that reflective thought is the *modus operandi* in this form of education.

Group-process teachers, in contrast to academically minded ones, "... put main emphasis, not on logic, ... but on feeling ..." (page 116). They employ "*the planful use of the group to influence behavioral change*" (page 109). Yet "... the entire process will be intellectualized at its conclusion" (page 116). Does the individual pupil arrive at his convictions in group-process education by means of emotion and group pressure or through the reflective process? This question emerges from the text, but is not answered.

The author includes interesting anecdotes and case histories. Unfortunately, many of these selections are not sharply relevant. All too frequently the author's style is verbose and his terminology vague.

ROBERT E. JEWETT

WATSON, MARGUERITE H. *How to Prepare and Use Job Manuals: a Handbook for Supervisors*. New York: William-Frederick Press, 1952. iv+38 pp.

Mrs. Watson presents a concise handbook for supervisors who accept job manuals as basic to good supervision and who need assistance in the preparation and use of manuals. Despite the publication's brevity, it is complete in basic information about job analysis and manualization: defining work procedures, amount of worker supervision, minimum worker qualifications, acquired worker qualifications during the learning period, and information which workers need to become constructive members of a unit and organization as a whole.

The writer strives for simplicity, clarity, and brevity in the written work

involved in the job-manuals project; she utilizes an outline form and sketches of unit physical layout, organizational charts, and work flow of the supervisory unit in an attempt to practice the conciseness which she advocates.

Six short chapters of the handbook are concerned with developing job-manual history and clarification of manualization terms, writing work procedures, assigning work to jobs, amount of available supervision, job qualifications, and assembling associated information. The construction and physical aspects of job manuals, keeping manuals up to date, and principal uses of manuals comprise the three latter sections of the handbook.

Brief consideration is given to the development of job manuals as co-operative group enterprises. Mrs. Watson states that "the greatest benefits have come from including the group as a whole at the start of the Job Manual Project" (page 3). In connection with gaining insight into weaknesses of work procedure, she prophesies that the supervisor will receive many suggestions from the workers themselves if the group is taken into the supervisor's confidence. Worker morale, developing team spirit among workers, human-relations skills required, and group leadership of the supervisor are mentioned as necessary accomplishments of the manualization process and its implementation in the work of the unit.

Despite the slight treatment of democratic group processes in the construction and implementation of the manuals project and its value to personnel relations, the handbook is recommended reading for all persons in supervisory rôles.

GEORGE BRANDON

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Investigations of Teacher Supply and Demand Reported in 1952

[Continued from page 76]

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58. WENDHOLT, CHARLES DORR. "Teacher Supply and Demand." Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University, 1952. 400 pp. (Doctor's dissertation on file in the library of Indiana University).
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The Influence of Academic Standing upon Success in Student Teaching

[Continued from page 67]

that the chances are even that the true correlation between academic standing and student-teaching of this rather homogeneous group will vary from slightly above to slightly below zero.

The coefficient of correlation in this study is not notably different from that found between teaching success and percentile rating on the Ohio State Psychological Examination as reported in a study by the writer in *School and Society* for April 30, 1938, where r was found to be .14.¹ It seems reasonably clear that academic rating above a certain critical point is not significant to such a degree that it can be used as a criterion for forecasting teaching success.

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¹"The Percentile Ranking on the Ohio State University Psychological Test as a Factor in Forecasting Success of Teachers in Training," XLVII, p. 583.

Educational Research Bulletin

APRIL 8, 1953

Vol. XXXII, No. 4

Considerateness and Aggression: an Action Research Study¹

By ARTHUR W. FOSHAY

THE Romantic notion of childhood, that children enter the world "trailing clouds of glory," that the innocence of children is equivalent to virtue, is beguiling. Indeed, it is rooted deep in our culture. The idea that sweetness, kindness, or considerateness must be learned by children is hard to accept, unless one deals with children constantly. Even then, the idea that children are often inconsiderate, unkind, even cruel to one another, is especially distressing. But it is so.

Some of us in Springfield, having been distressed by inconsiderateness among children, sought ways of studying the matter. Like the other school staffs in Springfield, we first defined our "intangible," which we called "considerateness," through observing and recording behavior that seemed to us considerate or inconsiderate. Accordingly, we gathered examples of these kinds of behavior. Here are some examples of considerate and inconsiderate behavior from the elementary school. We think that these are commonplace happenings that might be seen in any school on almost any day.

Grade I—

Considerate

Anna helped erase errors on a note to mother that Vernal was trying to write. (Vernal's eraser was badly worn and made dirty marks. Anna had a new eraser.)

Inconsiderate

Jackie put his foot to one side to keep Karen from sitting by him.

¹ The final report of the project is to appear as a book, *Children's Social Values: an Action Research Study*, under joint authorship with Kenneth Wann. The book will be published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, in 1954. The portion of a chapter which is preprinted here is written by Mr. Foshay, who was consultant to the staff of the elementary school that studied considerateness.

Grade III

Considerate

Rosalind offered to count change in the classroom for Wanda, who could not make change.

Inconsiderate

Merle knocked Robert's hat off the hook in the cloakroom so that he could hang his own on the hook.

Grade V

Considerate

Sue helped a new girl with her lunch order.

Inconsiderate

In front of the other children, Buddy said he wished Jimmy were not on his ball team. He said Jimmy was lazy and made an out every time. This happened on the playground.

Grade VI

Considerate

Jimmy requested that the pitcher slow down the fast ball when it was a timid new boy's turn at the bat.

Inconsiderate

Larry tried to make Frank lose a ball game by fumbling purposely.

THESE sample observations are our behavioral definition of considerateness. To state the definition in more general terms, by considerateness we mean being kind and helpful toward one another. By inconsiderateness we mean being aggressive and selfish toward one another. However, as our study continued, we found it more helpful to use the examples rather than the general definitions, when we talked about considerateness.

When we looked at our collection of examples it appeared that in the early grades inconsiderate behavior tended to take the form of overt physical aggression and in the upper grades to consist more and more of verbal aggression. We resolved to test this impression of ours by seeing whether the children would reveal such a tendency through their responses to an open question.² Accordingly, we asked all of the children in the school to list those things that "make me want to strike back." We categorized these statements according to whether the children named overt physical aggression or verbal aggression. In the category "overt physical aggression," we included responses such as: "choke you," "pinch you," "jump

² An open question as here used implies a statement or question which does not call for a structured, specific response.

on your back." In the category "verbal aggression," we included such responses as: "say dirty words," "tattling," "name-calling." In the open table which follows we offer a summary of the responses to the statement, "Things that make me want to strike back," given by 300 elementary-school children.³

GRADE	AGGRESSION	
	Physical	Verbal
I	56	9
II	18	25
III	10	4
IV	8	29
VI	16	3

What we found was that no such tendency existed as the one that we had inferred from our observational material. The children in the second grade named what we called "verbal" aggression more frequently than they named "physical" aggression. The children in the sixth grade named physical aggression more frequently than they named verbal aggression. We concluded that in so far as this was a valid analysis, verbal aggression appeared prominently in the children's minds by the time they had reached the second grade, and that differences in the prominence of verbal aggression in our observations among the various grades of our school would have to be accounted for through reasons other than the grade or age of the children.

We wished, however, to discover more about the kinds of acts children consider aggressive and thus inconsiderate. We asked another open question of the children in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades: "How I know people don't like me." Responses from the six classes involved are summarized here:

Description of Item	Frequency	Rank
Overt physical aggression		
(throwing rocks, hitting people, pushing in the lunch line, kicking, jumping on your back).....	66	1
Gossip, teasing, name-calling		
(mocking, "call you cheater," profanity, tone of voice)	47	2
Participation in organized games		
(refusal to play with one, criticism of failure or mistakes during game play, breaking the rules).....	32	3
Avoidance		
(refusal to talk, snubbing people, running off to be with someone else).....	30	4
Treatment of my belongings		
(tear up my games, "swiping" hat or coat, hiding something, ride your bicycle).....	13	5.5
Facial expression		
(refusal to look you in the eye, making faces, sticking tongue out).....	13	5.5

³ Responses from Grade V were not obtained.

An analysis of this table suggested to us a somewhat more detailed version of our original division of inconsiderateness, which we had described through the two categories, physical aggression and verbal aggression. When the children responded to our question, "How I know people don't like me," overt physical aggression continued to occupy a prominent place in Grades IV, V, and VI. The fact that overt physical aggression ranked first among the things that made them know that people did not like them was not surprising to us. After all, communication with a rock or with a fist is quite obvious and easy to understand.

What interested us even more, however, was the subtlety of the several varieties of non-physical aggression that emerged from our analysis of the children's responses. Gossip, mistreatment of one's belongings, refusing to look one in the eye, and the like are actually quite aggressive behaviors. The sum of the frequencies from the second highest to the lowest in the table was greater than the frequency of the first. The fact that this non-physical aggression is named with considerably greater frequency than is the overt physical aggression of rock-throwing, punching, and the like, gave us pause. All of us remembered from our own childhood experience that gossip, avoidance, and facial expression were very real means of expressing aggression. The children seemed to be saying, there are a great many substitutes for a poke in the nose. These include openly avoiding another person, offering to play with one and then running off to play with someone else, and other such snubbing and cutting.

How much inconsiderateness can a teacher see? When we compared our own observations with the children's responses to these two open questions, it appeared to us that we and the children were talking about the same thing only in so far as we talked about the behavior we teachers could see.

Most of our teacher-observations in the elementary school would fit into categories named by the children in the first and second ranks of the table, "How I know people don't like me." Most of what we saw was either overt physical aggression or overt verbal aggression. The inconsiderateness that the children described in the comments which we classified under "participation in organized games," "avoidance," "treatment of my belongings," and "facial expression" appears very

rarely in our observations of the children's behavior. Perhaps, had we been looking for this kind of "inconsiderate" behavior, we might have reported more of it in our observational material. However, the fact that we did not report it means that we did not see it, and that we were not in the habit of looking for it.

From this situation, we drew a conclusion of some importance to us. We concluded that what we were calling "inconsiderate" amounted to only a fraction of all that the children recognized as "inconsiderate." Our observations, which fit into the first two ranks of the table, "How I know people don't like me," would account for only 56 per cent of the items of behavior that the children suggested. The other 44 per cent apparently went on out of our sight. At least it was sufficiently hidden so that we did not report it when we were looking for inconsiderateness.

It was useful, therefore, for us to remember that although we and the children called the same overt behavior "inconsiderate," we teachers actually observed only a fraction of the total situation—which includes covert behavior.

We Study Group Acceptance

EARLY in our work together, one of us had reported an incident of "considerate" behavior like this: "Instead of leaving for recess, Sue Ellen stayed in the room and helped Nancy to straighten up her desk." Elsewhere on the sheet of paper used to report this incident, the teacher had written a note: "Sue Ellen is always going from one friend to another."

This suggested something to us: perhaps Sue Ellen's behavior should be thought of as part of her quest for friends, not just as "considerate" behavior for its own sake. In fact, Sue Ellen's teacher was strongly persuaded that Sue Ellen was not fundamentally considerate. Her purpose in recording this incident was to raise a question with all of us about the meaning of this kind of behavior and the possibility that we were seriously misinterpreting it.

Perhaps much of the considerate behavior we had observed was related to seeking friendship. We wondered whether we could find any consistent relationship between the acceptance of children by their classmates (their group acceptance) and their tendency to behave in a considerate manner. To find

out, we organized our efforts into a series of steps as follows:

Step 1: Each of us would gather examples of considerate and inconsiderate behavior, making sure that we noted the name of the person initiating the behavior and the name of the person toward whom the considerateness or inconsiderateness was directed—the “initiator” and “receiver,” so to speak.

Step 2: Each of us teaching children above the third grade would give the Classroom Social Distance Scale to get the measure of group acceptance for each child in our classes. Below the third grade, we would observe children’s choices of classmates and friends in an effort to form some judgments about children who were consistently well accepted and children who were consistently lonely in our classes.

Step 3: We would examine our observations of considerate and inconsiderate behavior, and our records of group acceptance of each individual, to see whether there were any consistent relationships.

To understand the table which follows, the reader will need to remember that we are attempting here to state the relationship between the person who initiated the considerate or inconsiderate behavior and the person who received it. There are four possible relationships within the group: first, the initiator can have higher acceptance than the receiver; second, he can have equal acceptance with the receiver; third, he can have lower acceptance than the receiver; fourth, one of the two can be new to the class. We have categorized the relationship between the two children involved according to the group acceptance of the person who was on the receiving end of the considerate or inconsiderate behavior. In the table which follows is given the frequency of the examples of considerate and inconsiderate behavior classified according to the group’s acceptance of the initiators and receivers of the acts:

GROUP ACCEPTANCE	BEHAVIOR	
	Considerate	Inconsiderate
Initiator has higher group acceptance than receiver	1	14
Initiator and receiver have equal group acceptance	10	6
Initiator has lower group acceptance than receiver	3	3
Receiver new to the class	7	0
Totals	21	23

An examination of this table suggests some interesting tentative answers to our question, “Is there a relationship between considerateness and group acceptance?” We identified children according to their relative group acceptance by other children in their room. The comparative group acceptance of

the initiators and receivers of considerate and inconsiderate behavior is described in the first column, "Group Acceptance." Thus, when Billy snatches away Jerry's notebook and throws it on a high shelf (and we call this inconsiderate), we look at the comparative group acceptance of Billy and Jerry as indicated by our sociometric devices. If Billy is higher than Jerry (is mentioned as a friend by more children in his class), we would record the behavior in the first row, second column, of the table, under "inconsiderate." That is, the initiator has a higher group acceptance than the receiver, and what he did was inconsiderate. If, on the other hand, Billy and Jerry were substantially the same (that is, either both relatively high in group acceptance, both in the middle of the class with respect to group acceptance, or both relatively low in group acceptance), we would record the behavior in the second row of the table, in the column called "inconsiderate." That is, the initiator and the receiver have equal group acceptance, and the behavior is inconsiderate. If, on the other hand, Billy (who snatched the book away) had lower group acceptance than Jerry (whose book was snatched), we would record the behavior in the third row of the table, under the column "inconsiderate." If Jerry, whose notebook was snatched away, were new to the class, he would have no group acceptance as yet. We did not think in these cases that the fact that he appeared in the results of the Classroom Social Distance Scale to have "low" group acceptance should be taken at its face value. Children who are new to the room, we said to ourselves, have to find their way into the social structure of the classroom. Until they have been in the classroom for a month or so, it is not possible for the teacher to find out what level of group acceptance they will attain. Therefore, we included a separate category for considerate and inconsiderate behavior directed at new children.

Now let us interpret the table. The figure that stands out is in the first row and the second column; that is, the 14 inconsiderate acts, more than half of all we recorded. These were initiated by a child who had greater group acceptance than the child toward whom the inconsiderate behavior was directed. So far as this observation could be trusted, therefore, it indicated that inconsiderate behavior was directed downward in the scale of group acceptance.

The other portion of this table that interested us was the

category in which the initiator and the receiver have equal group acceptance. While the difference in numbers of behaviors is not very striking (10 considerate acts and 6 inconsiderate acts), nevertheless the fact that nearly half of all the considerate behavior we saw took place between children who had approximately equal group acceptance seemed to us to be significant. Moreover, these ten considerate acts greatly exceeded in number the considerate acts we saw taking place between children who were unequal in group acceptance. The fact that seven of the 21 observations of considerateness were directed at children new to the room, that only three were directed "upward," so to speak (that is, toward a child of greater group acceptance), led us to conclude that, for our children, considerateness tended to be directed toward social equals.

There are some additional interpretations of this material which are not supported strongly enough for us to report as conclusions. However, we think that they are sufficiently interesting to be reported as questions: Is considerate behavior directed at new children as a means of winning their friendship? Is there any pronounced tendency for children who have generally high group acceptance to commit more considerate acts than inconsiderate acts? A substantial number of the inconsiderate acts we saw took place among children of equal group acceptance. (*See Row 2, Column 2, of the table*). Does this behavior tend to occur among children of equally low group acceptance? In a number of cases (but our records are not complete on this point) the considerate behavior directed at children new to the room was initiated by children who had low group acceptance. One example of this was found in the anecdote that led us to study this matter in the first place—the one in which the child who went from one friend to another helped another child during the recess period. The child helped was new to the class.

DID this imply a "peck order" in our classrooms? In the barnyard, some chickens can peck other chickens without reprisal, and they get the preferred place at the feedbox. In the classroom, some children can be inconsiderate to other children without apparent reprisal. In our discussion we came back again to the fact that most of the inconsiderate behavior we saw was initiated by individuals who had higher group ac-

ceptance than did the children on whom it was inflicted. The additional fact, that almost all of the considerate behavior we saw either took place between equals or was directed toward new children, tended to support this "peck order" conclusion.

The more we thought about this, the more we tended to reinterpret what we were calling "considerate" and "inconsiderate" behavior. Possibly inconsiderate behavior was actually an expression of differing group acceptance. Possibly, the child's code demanded of him that he maintain his status in class, at least in part, by being inconsiderate of certain others. If we had found very many examples of considerate behavior directed from children of low group acceptance to children of high group acceptance, we would have worried still more. Such behavior would have been "toadying." On the other hand, we thought that a good many of the youngsters who had low group acceptance were felt by the others to be obnoxious much of the time, and to bring the inconsiderate behavior upon themselves. The fact that a child of high group acceptance appeared to have initiated some inconsiderate behavior against the youngster of lower group acceptance did not necessarily mean that the inconsiderate behavior was wholly unprovoked.

But the nagging fact remained that most of the inconsiderate behavior we saw was directed downward in the order of group acceptance. Whatever lay behind it, we certainly were faced with the probability that our interpretation of the meaning of "inconsiderate" behavior had to be re-examined. We concluded our thinking about the table by agreeing that in all probability "considerate" and "inconsiderate" behavior are so closely related to group acceptance that they are an expression of it.

ACTING on this conclusion, we resolved to examine the means through which children could achieve group acceptance. We were aware of the fact that many studies have been made of factors that influence children's friendships, and we knew that availability had seemed to be one of the most powerful of all of these. This, however, could scarcely be thought of as a very dynamic or useful factor for us to employ. After all, the children we had observed were all available to one another as close friends, since they were classmates. If considerate and inconsiderate behavior were considered as expressions of group acceptance, then if we could do things that would make chil-

dren in the group more acceptable to one another, we might expect them to be more considerate of one another.⁴ What were the means through which children could increase their group acceptance? And which of these means could we influence in school?

Clearly, children like one another because they find one another attractive in some way. If we could discover what made our children attractive to each other, we might help our less attractive children to make more friends. First, though, we had to know more about what was considered attractive by the children. To gain information from the children about this, we employed another open question: "Things that make me feel important."

Our reasoning here was as follows: The word *important* in all probability meant to our children the same things that we were seeking, but which we called "factors leading to group acceptance." We assumed that there was a close relationship between the things that the children would identify as making them feel important and the things which they recognized in others as symbols of high group acceptance (or, in other words, high prestige) in the classroom. We thought that we would attack the matter in this oblique fashion in order to avoid what appeared to us to be the rather superficial findings of studies of factors influencing children's friendships, usually based on direct questions asked of children. We assumed that those things which children found attractive in themselves would be much more likely to influence their actual choice of friends than would things that they might attempt to identify in someone else as being significantly related to choice of friendships.

In the table which follows we have summarized the 185 responses of 90 children in Grades III, IV, V, and VI to the request that they list "things that make me feel important":

Description of Item	Frequency	Per Cent of Total
Academic		
(Doing well in school subjects, getting high marks)	63	34
Playing games		
(Play by the rules, play skillfully, being chosen for a team, people play with me).....	42	23
Help the teacher		
(Run an errand, carry things for the teacher, bring the teacher a gift).....	18	10

⁴ We did not think that we had established a cause-and-effect relationship through our observations which are reported in the table. However, the relationships seemed so close that we thought a cause-and-effect relationship was at least possible. That is why we now turned to a further study of group acceptance.

Description of Item	Frequency	Per Cent of Total
Class chores		
(Straighten books, take stamp order or lunch order)	12	6
Help another child		
(Help with school work, be "big sister" to new child)	8	4
The teacher calls on me		
(Praises me, displays my work, calls on me in history)	8	4
Gifts		
(I give and receive gifts and thanks for them)	6	4
Music		
(Singing, leading the class in singing, playing the piano)	6	3
People say kind things to me	6	3
Be nice to (obey) the teacher		
(Obey the school rules)	5	3
Miscellaneous:*		
Help the group	3	2
Be chairman	3	2
Have new clothes or shoes	3	2

* The following were mentioned once or twice: only 5 more weeks of school; just to come to school; rest, have a party at school; bring something to school; to be trusted; have good ideas; when I went to the dentist; excursion; get in a fight; don't tattle; people come to my house; we have a new baby; eat lunch; buy my own clothing; tell the truth.

As we examined this table, we noticed that the first three categories, "academic," "playing games," and "help the teacher," accounted for 67 per cent of all the responses made by the children. The numbers of the responses for the other categories were so small that we considered all of them equally lacking in importance.

We had assumed that those things which the children valued in themselves, they would also value in others. Thirty-four per cent of all of their responses had to do with academic achievement and the rewards associated with it; 23 per cent with the ability to play games well, and being chosen to play games; 10 per cent with helping the teacher in one way or another. Could these and other acts that the children mentioned really be considered as symbols of the prestige of children in school?

When we looked again at the children's comments, we thought that they could be considered in this way. The high frequency of academic comments, upon second examination, seemed to us to relate closely to marks of approval by the teacher. What was strongly suggested here was that the teacher's approval, as expressed by high marks, actually did contribute something to the status of the children with their peers.

We looked again at the names of the children who had high group acceptance. Did they actually receive these signs of teacher approval? There were two or three striking exceptions,

but we found that, by and large, they did. The children who enjoyed high group acceptance were the same ones who tended to receive better than average marks.⁵

By itself, teacher approval would not account for high group acceptance. However, as we looked at the categories "the teacher calls on me," "be nice to (obey) the teacher," and "help the teacher," the children's responses seemed to imply that the teacher's approval should at least be considered as a major factor in their feelings of personal worth, and therefore in their judgment of the worth of others. When we added up the percentages associated with the four categories in which the teacher figured prominently, we found that 51 per cent of all of the responses had to do with these direct indications of teacher approval.

We did not think that teacher approval accounted for 51 per cent of all of the group acceptance of the children. This would have been pushing the significance of the percentages too far. However, the prominence of this type of response made it obvious that overt teacher approval of individual children was, to say the least, a factor of real significance in the self-evaluation of these children, and, consequently, in all probability an important factor in their evaluation and acceptance of one another.

What Children Think about Themselves

HAVING touched on the crucially important matter of self-evaluation, and having found this evidence that we as teachers were important factors in the children's lives, we resolved to find out more about what children valued about themselves. To do this, we secured the children's responses to two more open questions: first, "What I like about myself," and second, "What I don't like about myself."

Our purpose here was simply to gather further information about the data that the children used in their self-appraisal. We still assumed that those things which they valued in themselves, they also valued in others. The children's responses on these two topics, and their responses to the question, "Things

⁵ We wish we had kept better notes at this point. We remember having discussed this matter, and having agreed on this point. However, we cannot find the data that would support it. We are reporting it, nevertheless, because we are convinced of the truth of it, generally speaking, for our children.

that make me feel important," we thought should be considered as supplementary to one another. From the responses to these three questions we could develop a sort of inventory of the symbols of self-importance that the children were consciously employing. We did not assume that these consciously used symbols would amount to a complete list of the factors that actually contribute to a child's feeling of personal worth or to his means of evaluating the worth of others. However, we did think that we could gain through these questions some notion of the factors that the children could put into words. Conceivably, if we knew more about what the children were conscious of, we would be in a better position to help them deepen their own understanding of themselves and thus of others. It was on the basis of this reasoning that we now proceeded to obtain the responses from 157 children in Grades IV, V, and VI to the two open questions—"What I like about myself" and "What I don't like about myself." The responses are categorized in the two parts of the table which follows:

What I like about myself

Physical characteristics—

hair
eyes
figure
face
height
teeth
complexion

Academic

Clothing

Helping parents

Possessions

Personality

What I don't like about myself

Physical characteristics—

face
hair
height
figure
complexion
health
color of eyes
feet
hands
legs
teeth
hearing

Temper—

(my temper, get mad too easily, "I lost my temper")

School subjects—

(marks, spelling, reading, painting)

"The way I act"—

("my ways," habits, "the way I do,"
"I absolutely hate myself")

Play skills—

("the way I catch," "the way I hit,"
"run fast")

Speech—

("the way I talk," "I say ain't," "cussing," bad English)

The responses themselves were of this type: "my hair," "the way I read" (classified as "academic"), "my coat" (classified as "clothing"), "my ways" (classified as "personality"). The categories given in the table account for all the children's re-

sponses. We are neither ranking these categories nor reporting the frequencies, because of a discrepancy in the directions we gave the children. Some of us told the children to state as many things as they pleased. Others restricted the children to one statement. This meant that we could not pool the frequencies from the classes. Therefore, we have reported here the categories we developed and tested. The actual frequencies are high in all the categories.⁶

When we examined the children's responses, we noticed first that the negative statement ("What I don't like about myself") led to more detailed responses than did the positive statement. Then we noticed the striking similarity between the responses to the two. In each case, physical characteristics appeared prominently and in considerable detail. In both cases, academic proficiency was mentioned frequently. The categories in "What I don't like about myself" called "temper" and "the way I act" we thought to be similar in meaning to the category "personality" under "What I like about myself." It was interesting that "play skills" appeared on the negative side and not on the positive one, and that clothing appeared prominently on the positive side and not on the negative one. However, we thought that differences of this type between the two could not easily be interpreted, and that we would do well simply to take all of the categories that appeared in both tables and interpret them as fairly representative of those things the children like and do not like about themselves. We could generalize this, we thought, into a statement that the categories that emerged from the responses to these two questions were legitimately representative of those things the children were conscious of when they evaluated themselves.

THE CONSCIOUS DATA OF PRESTIGE

WHEN we considered the children's responses to "Things that make me feel important" and "What I like about myself" and "What I don't like about myself," we had an inventory of the data the children were actually aware of as they thought of their own worth. Moreover, we thought it likely that these same data were used by the children in judging one

⁶ The reader will be interested in comparing the responses of our children with the responses of children to the same questions in Arthur T. Jersild's *In Search of Self* (see tables in Appendix D). The categories we obtained are very similar to those reported by Jersild, to whom we are indebted for the suggestion that we employ these questions.

another, and thus that they contributed to the conscious giving and taking of prestige in the classroom. Our conclusions can be put together to explain the conscious elements of classroom prestige, and how it is expressed.

First, we found that in evaluating themselves, our children consciously used the data reported in their responses to "Things that make me feel important," "What I like about myself," and "What I don't like about myself."

Second, we found that the group's acceptance of individuals in it is expressed through considerate and inconsiderate acts, and that inconsiderate acts are catalogued in the children's responses to "things that make we want to strike back." They also are indicated in our records of our adult observations of considerate and inconsiderate behavior.

Having formed judgments about one another partly on the basis of such elements as teacher approval, clothing, play skills, and physical appearance, the children gave expression to these judgments through such inconsiderate and considerate acts as overt physical aggression, snubbing, name-calling, helping each other, "tempering the wind to the shorn lamb," and complimentary remarks.

We thought we were dealing with two kinds of symbols here. One, the considerate or inconsiderate act, symbolized acceptance or rejection by an individual and ultimately by the class group. The other, the characteristics mentioned in the last three tables, were the consciously employed symbols of prestige which underlay many of the acts of considerateness and inconsiderateness we saw.

IT WAS important that we recognize what the children were recognizing. It was equally important, however, that we not assume that these consciously recognized symbols were of themselves a sufficient explanation of the considerate and inconsiderate behavior we had been observing.

One big gap in the children's responses to the questions about their feeling of self-importance and personal worth (possibly a consequence of the questions having been asked in school rather than somewhere else) is the very minor mention of family. In the three tables having to do with self-evaluation, parents appear in only one category, and that category is not mentioned nearly so frequently as are others that are purely

personal or that relate to marks of school approval. It is inconceivable that our children's feeling of personal worth and that their judgment of the worth of other children should be influenced as slightly by family membership as their responses suggest.

Another gap is the children's failure to mention physical health. While data about physical health might be inferred from their responses dealing with play skills and their physical appearance, not a single child ever talked directly about health or illness, fatigue or abundant energy. It is inconceivable that the status of a child's health should have no influence on his feeling of personal worth or upon his judgment about the worth and prestige of others.

We were dealing here only with those personal characteristics and behaviors of which the children were specifically aware. We knew very well that there are other important factors of which the children were not aware which help determine the prestige system of the classroom and the feeling of the individual worth of the children in it.

What Did This Imply for Our Teaching?

THE use of this information was suggested by a phrase we adopted: "The conscious data of prestige." When a child deprecates his own appearance, we know now that he is consciously talking about a factor that is of great importance to his feeling of personal worth. In the future, we shall assume that our children who talk about their physical appearance and that of others are consciously talking about something that is of great importance to the prestige of the children involved. Similarly, when our children ask questions designed to elicit from us teachers some expression of approval or disapproval of their school work, or of them as persons, we shall treat such questions seriously. We shall assume that our judgmental statements have a substantial effect upon the feeling of personal worth of the child and upon his prestige in the classroom. We have learned, too, to pay more attention to the game-playing situations than has been our habit.

The net effect of all of this has been to make us far less casual in carrying on routine classroom work. These data remind us of something we tend to overlook—that, from the

point of view of children in our care, every classroom moment may be crucial to somebody.

The prominent place which we teachers occupied in determining the children's feelings about themselves particularly interested us. Children do and say so many things which suggest that they are disregarding what we say, or scoffing at us, or ignoring our marks of disapproval, that this evidence that they take us so seriously was somewhat surprising.

When we stopped to think about it, we remembered from our many studies of individual children that scoffing, "stubbornness," and "stupidity" are very often best understood as attempts by a child to defend himself against attack. We knew from many a conversation with individual children that at the very moment a child was thus fending off our anger, he was taking what we said very seriously. The responses to these open questions suggest that this is true of our children generally. We will do well to remember that when we give a child a high mark, send him on an errand, ask him to lead the class in some way, or even thank him for doing some little chore, we are contributing significantly to his feeling of personal worth.

The importance of evenhandedness in our dealings with children is clearly implied. We all mean to be evenhanded, all the time. However, when we think of the ordinary school day, we know that often we give marks of teacher approval or disapproval on an utterly casual basis. Yet our children suggest, through their responses to these open questions, that we ourselves contribute to the prestige system in the class, and thus indirectly to the acts of considerate and inconsiderate behavior that we had been observing from the beginning.

It is our moral responsibility, since this is the situation, to keep the classroom prestige system as wide open as possible. The clear implication for us as teachers is that we neither give nor withhold indications of our own approval of the children's behavior on an accidental basis. Our ideal as teachers is that we accept all of the children as valuable, worthy individuals. We are obliged to give all our children equal opportunities to rise in the class prestige system, so far as we have influence on it. This means that we shall overlook no opportunities to praise children for work that is praiseworthy, and to call the attention of the class to good work wherever it appears.

"Teacher's pet," we think, can exist only in a class in which

the teacher has closed the prestige system. The children's resentment arises precisely from the fact that the teacher is inequitable in granting marks or indications of approval. By granting the prestige of her approval to one child rather than another, the teacher withholds from some children something they require for their feeling of personal worth. Thus, the children resent the teacher and make a scapegoat of the teacher's pet. To avoid this, then, the teacher must maintain an open prestige system in the class by doing those things the children have indicated to us represent teacher approval.

What are these indications of teacher approval? Our children told us that they are: school marks, running errands, being asked to lead the class in singing, helping the teacher, being praised for school work, being called on in class. Our tendency, we thought, had been to be very fair and equitable in the granting of school marks, but to be far less equitable in these other ways that the children indicated were important to them.

Children's Interpretations of Stories about Considerateness

THE observations, responses to open questions, and sociometric material had all been gathered and interpreted by adults. It remained to check these explanations of "considerateness" against the children's own explanations. We now attempted to look at it through the children's eyes. To do this, we changed the names in some of our anecdotal material, and otherwise disguised it, and asked the children to interpret the anecdotes to us. These are the anecdotes⁷ we used:

The "Scribble" Story

Claude and Ralph were in the same grade in school. One day when Claude went to the pencil sharpener, Ralph turned around and made scribbling marks on Claude's clean paper that was ready for work. Why did Ralph do this?

⁷ The titles of these stories are given only so that they can be identified in the discussion that follows. If the reader wishes to use any of these stories with children, we would suggest that no title be used. If it seems necessary to use a title, call them "The Story of Claude and Ralph," "The Story of Jack," "The Story of Laura," and so on.

These stories are reproduced exactly as they were first written in the observational records. There is a certain wordiness in some of them, and others are definitely inelegant, if considered from a literary point of view. However, the style in which they are written is the same chatty, informal style we usually adopt when talking with our children. To the children, the stories sounded like us, not some impersonal writer of tests.

The "First in Line" Story

It was time to get ready for lunch, and the children all went to the rest room to wash their hands. Jack hurried to the rest room so he could wash his hands. He turned on the faucet, dipped his fingers quickly in and then right out again and then dried his hands on a towel and hurried out of the rest room as fast as he could. He hurried back to the room to be the first in line. Why did Jack want to be first?

The "Milk" Story

This is a story about Laura. She is in the fourth grade. In the lunchroom a second-grade boy spilled his milk. Laura quickly went to the kitchen, got some paper towels, and went right in to help him clean it up. Why did Laura do that?

The "Reading Circle" Story

The children were coming up to make a circle in front of the room. John sat at one end of the circle. He put his foot to one side, like this, so that Ella couldn't sit down beside him. Why did John do that?

The "Hat" Story

One wet day, Dick and Jerry were walking to school. Dick took hold of Jerry's hat and gave it a jerk. What happened then?

The "Lunch Pail" Story

Sally was coming to school. She was going up the steps one morning on her way to her room. She was carrying her lunch pail, overshoes, and a box of crayons. She stumbled and fell on the steps and dropped the things she was carrying, and the crayons all rolled out of the box. Now Leonard came along right behind her. What could he say when he came along? (Children give "nice" answers.) Now let's suppose that Leonard did not stop to help Sally. Why didn't Leonard stop?

The "Recess" Story

The children were having recess period. Robert kept stamping on Alice's toes. Why did Robert keep stamping on Alice's toes? What do you think Alice thought about that?

Five pairs of children in Grades III-VI were asked to interpret each of these stories to us.⁸ The teacher sat with two children in her class and conducted the interview. The entire

⁸ Actually, we selected two children in each class, one we thought of as "high," and the other "low," in considerateness. However, when we examined their interpretations of these stories, we could see no particular relationship between the responses of our "high" and "low" children, nor could we find anything consistent that had to do with grade membership of these children. This may arise from the fact that we used such a small number of children. In any case, we will not discuss the grade membership of the children. We shall, instead, interpret only the social mechanism that the children seem to imply by their responses.

interview was recorded on tape, and the tape recording was transcribed.

It quickly appears from the children's responses to these stories that a kind of back-and-forth exists to these inconsiderate behaviors. The first thing that the children saw in these stories was a situation involving aggression and counteraggression. If A did something to B, then B did something to A. In order to understand what happened to Sally, the children turned to Sally's past relations with Leonard, or looked forward to some retaliatory behavior on Sally's part. The children report, we think, an "eye for an eye" kind of social interaction. For example, let us consider this response to the "Scribble" story:

TEACHER:

Well, what do you think that Claude would do if he came back and saw that Ralph had scribbled on his paper?

BILLY:

I'd scribble on his paper.

[An eye for an eye]

TEACHER:

What do you think, Jerry?

JERRY:

I think he wouldn't. I don't think he'd like it.

TEACHER:

What do you think you can do about it?

JERRY:

Go tell the teacher. I think I know what the teacher would do. Send Ralph back in the corner. . .

[Hit back]

Here are the responses of two other boys to the "Scribble" story.

TEACHER:

Why do you think Ralph did that?

ELDON:

Maybe he thought he was just showing off.

TEACHER:

Well, what do you mean by showing off?

ELDON:

Well, you just go and scribble or just do anything like a show-off—well, you get it right back 'cause they can do it and not tell the teacher. If they tell the teacher, then they'll be a tattletale and they'll get a spanking too.

[You get it right back]

TEACHER:

We don't give spankings very often here, do we?

ELDON:

No.

[Teacher on the defensive]

TEACHER:

We don't, do we?

ELDON:

No, get a guy home that tattles.

TEACHER:

Oh, you get it at home sometimes for tattling?

ELDON:

Usually my little brother goes and gets some water, and I tell on that and get spanked.

TEACHER:

Willard, why do you think Ralph went and did that?

WILLARD:

Might be mad at him.

TEACHER:

Well, this is just suppose. What do you suppose he might have done that got him mad? [Child uses only physical aggression to explain this]

WILLARD:

He pushed his sister down.

TEACHER:

Do you think that maybe he pushed his little sister down? On the way home or to school? What do you think, Eldon, might have happened?

ELDON:

I think he might have scribbled on his paper for that.

TEACHER:

Well, why do you suppose this boy would have done that?

ELDON:

Well, he just thought that he'd get up more better—that he'd mark on this boy's paper and get it through, and after he got it through, he'd scribble on it, though maybe he'd just wrote on it and told him to go and sharpen his pencil, so he got his other pencil and started scribbling on it.

TEACHER:

Do you think Ralph told Claude to sharpen his pencil so he'd have a chance to scribble then?

ELDON:

Could have . . .

Let us consider one more of these interviews, this time in response to the "Hat" story:

TEACHER:

What happened then?

DONALD:

Pulled it off and threw it in the water.

TEACHER:

Why do you think he did that? Do you have any idea why he'd do a thing like that?

DONALD:

No.

TEACHER:

Do you, Chris?

CHRIS:

No.

TEACHER:

Why did he pull it off and throw it into the water?

DONALD:

Because maybe he wouldn't play with him.

TEACHER:

Would that be a nice thing to do if he wouldn't play with him?

DONALD:

Because maybe the other fellow had his cap off and wouldn't give it back to him, but he didn't throw it in the water, so he threw his in the water, and this other guy, he took the other fellow's cap off and he threw it down in the deeper water.

TEACHER:

You mean Dick threw Jerry's cap in the water?

DONALD:

Yes.

TEACHER:

And then Jerry took Dick's cap and threw it in the deeper water?

DONALD:

Yes.

KEEPING even appears in every case in which the story involved what we had called "inconsiderate" behavior. The children's explanation was based on an assumption either that something had happened in the past for which the child was getting even, or that he would have to get even in the future for what had been done to him. For another example, consider Eldon's explanation of the "Lunch Pail" story:

Well, maybe he just didn't like her because she goes by his house, and they play together, and when his mother calls, well, he don't wanta go home, and she tells him he'd better go home or his father will whip him, and then he says 'shut up' to her, and then he goes in."

If considerate and inconsiderate behavior were expressions of the prestige system in the classroom, and we thought they were, then the children's interpretations of these stories suggested that the prestige of an individual was maintained in part by keeping even in the face of aggression. Now, our comparison of group acceptance and observed inconsiderate behavior suggested that most of the inconsiderate behavior we had observed was directed downward in the prestige system of the classroom. Yet the children implied that it was crucially important to keep even in the face of aggression and counter-aggression. If inconsiderate behavior was usually directed downward, then either some of the children consistently failed to keep even (which might explain their low prestige) or our observations had not revealed the whole situation to us.

The "keeping even" situation suggested by the children's interpretations of these anecdotes is fully as likely to prevail as is the "peck order" situation which our own observations had implied. If they co-exist, then the inconsiderate behavior we had observed was likely to have been part of a back-and-forth series of aggressions in which the child committing the inconsiderate behavior we saw, felt that he himself was "keeping even." It did not quite add up, however. We still have an impression that a good deal of the inconsiderate behavior we saw was actually initiated by the children whose conduct we witnessed. We wondered how the victims of it could "keep even." As a matter of fact, they were not keeping even, if the results of our sociometric questions were to be trusted.

Our conclusion was that if aggression and counteraggression are expressions of prestige in the classroom, then the children who were not accepted by the others were actually out of balance with respect to the aggression-counteraggression pattern. We supposed either that the children of low group acceptance themselves commit too many aggressions (possibly out of our sight) or that they fail to commit enough counter-aggressions. In either case, the penalty for failing to keep even would be a loss of prestige in class. In a sense, what was exchanged in this "give and take" was prestige.

We thought of it this way. When A hits B, he has taken away some of B's prestige. In order to recover it, B must hit A back. If he does this, they are "even" and the matter comes to an end. If he hits back too hard, then they are out of balance, B having taken away more of A's prestige than was his

due. A, then, must hit back again.

Actually this A-and-B business seemed to us to square with the facts of a great many playground squabbles. Boys often start roughhousing, and their roughhousing spirals into a "mad" fight, with thirty other children surrounding them and cheering them on. We try to prevent such fights on our playground, but they happen on the way to and from school, and sometimes they happen on the playground despite our efforts.

IN THE "eye for an eye" conflict as reported by the children, we wondered what the teacher's rôle should be. It was possible that we were sometimes involved in this spiraling, trading, primitive social mechanism without knowing it. A happening in the school yard one morning illustrated this situation to us. Here is the teacher's report of the incident:

During recess two fourth-grade boys caught hold of Willa Jean, backed her up against a tree, and kissed her. Cora, who saw this, was outraged. She ran into my room and reported the incident to me. I agreed with her that this kind of thing was intolerable on the playground, called in the two little boys, and scolded them for their behavior. After school the two little boys caught Cora and engaged in quite a rough scuffle with her. Cora went home crying. She told the whole story to her mother, and her mother said, "That's what you get for tattling."

We thought that the teacher had been caught squarely in the middle of a chain of counteraggression. The effect of her calling in the two little boys and scolding them had been to get things so "out of balance" that the boys committed aggression against Cora. The series had come to an end only with the mother's rebuff. How might the teacher have avoided being caught?

There was a way to have handled this that would have dealt with the disciplinary situation on the playground and yet not left Cora "out of balance" with the two little boys. The teacher somehow had to break the spiral of aggression and counteraggression. She might have broken the spiral by accepting Cora's report of the misdemeanor but not reacting to it instantly. Rather, the teacher might have waited for an opportunity to put this event with others and discuss the matter with the two boys, or in a general way with the whole class, at a later time. Her immediate response to Cora might have been,

"Thank you very much, Cora, for reporting this to me. This is something we can't allow on the playground, isn't it?" The teacher's mistake had been made when she immediately went out and called in the two boys for their scolding. In a sense, she simply added velocity to the spiraling aggression and counteraggression by what she did, and Cora's treatment after school was predictable.

What We Found

WE THINK we have reached some conclusions based on the evidence we collected, and that there are some important implications that grow out of these conclusions.

First, we think that "considerate" and "inconsiderate" behavior is defined in a substantially similar way by our children and by us teachers, in so far as we are talking about the overt behavior we have customarily called by these names. However, there is a great deal of covert inconsiderate behavior that the children identify (in responding to "things that make me want to strike back") that we have not usually seen.

Second, we believe that in our elementary school, "considerate" and "inconsiderate" behavior is an expression of the existing social structure of the classroom as revealed through sociometric questions. This leads us to re-examine the significance of "considerate" and "inconsiderate" behavior. Moreover, we concluded that what we were calling inconsiderate acts were only a part of those which the children recognized as inconsiderate.

Third, the group acceptance of individuals in the classroom depends (among other things) on a number of consciously recognized "things that make me feel important," "things I like about myself," and "things I don't like about myself." These symbols we regard as the currency or data of prestige. We think that these consciously recognized symbols of individual worth should be taken into account by teachers in our school who wish to have a deliberately desirable effect on the children's feeling of personal worth, and consequently upon their feelings about the worth of others.

Fourth, we believe our children, who maintain the prestige system in our classroom by means of what we have been calling "considerate" and "inconsiderate" behavior, actually see themselves as keeping a sort of balance with one another when they

are guilty of what we call "inconsiderate" behavior. Their interpretations of this behavior strongly imply that, from the child's point of view, most aggression is counteraggression.

Fifth, the teacher's approval or disapproval is a very important contributing element both to the personal feeling of worth of our children and to the system of aggression and counteraggression, considerateness and counterconsiderateness, that exists in our classrooms. With respect to "inconsiderate" behavior, it is very important that we teachers avoid being caught in a series of aggressions and counteraggressions of which we are not aware. This bears particularly on what we do about "tattling," and on what we think about the "teacher's pet" situation.

How to Verify Our Conclusions

IF you wish to see whether what we found in our classes is true in yours, we suggest that you short-cut our procedure in some ways and go through the following steps.

First, observe. Jot down as many examples of considerate and inconsiderate behavior as you can during one week. It will be a little harder to find examples of considerate behavior than of inconsiderate behavior, primarily because most of us are not in the habit of looking for considerateness. However, if you put your mind on it, you will find quite a large number of them. Ten or fifteen anecdotes of each kind are enough.

Second, examine the records of your observation. We found that working together on this material was very satisfying. If you can sit with a fellow teacher (or, desirably, with all the teachers who have made similar observations), look over your records of observations, and see whether in your opinion all of them should be called either "considerate" or "inconsiderate." Discard those about which you have doubts.

Third, observe again. For a period of one week, record every example of considerate and inconsiderate behavior you can, making sure to include in each anecdote the name of the person who initiated the behavior and the name of the person toward whom it was apparently directed. You will find that in some cases the considerate or inconsiderate behavior is apparently directed at the entire classroom group. We have not reported our observations of this kind of behavior because we

found only a few examples, and we were more interested in examining other behaviors. However, you may find it interesting to notice which children direct their behavior at the entire group. Categorize the observed behavior according to whether it is considerate or inconsiderate. Be sure to get the names written down in each case. We often forget to do this.

Fourth, try to explain the behavior. We suggest that you short-cut what we did at this point by getting the material from all of your open questions in a brief time. That is: first, administer the Classroom Social Distance Scale or some other sociometric device to all of the children in your class (these devices are useful only above the third grade). Second, obtain the children's responses to "things that make we want to strike back," "things that I like about myself," "things that I don't like about myself," and "things that make me feel important." We suggest that you ask these questions one at a time, on separate days, but there is no reason why you cannot do all of them within a two-week period. You may think of other open questions that you would like to ask for responses to at this time, such as "What I like about my three best friends," "A considerate (or inconsiderate) boy or girl is somebody who" There is almost no end to the open questions that one might ask. The only limit we are aware of is the children's patience. By the way, we found that a discussion of the results of these questions in our classes was very worth while. The children often supplemented our interpretation and obviously benefited from the sharing of ideas.

Fifth, ask the children to interpret the anecdotal material. Select four or five anecdotes like those we used, change the names so that no name of a child in your class appears, and ask the children to explain the behavior. We found that it was important in using these anecdotes that we select names that were a little unusual. Names like Billy, Jimmy, Mary, Alice, and the like seemed to be so similar in the children's minds as to lead them to confuse one character with another. Names like Eldon, Ralph, Jennifer, and Sue Anne were sufficiently unusual to help our children remember the characters when they tried to interpret the anecdotes. Try, too, to select anecdotes that do not suggest pat answers to the children. We found that the only way to make this selection was to try out anecdotes on a few children. The purpose of the anecdote is to get the child to talk freely about the general situation. In our "Hat" story,

for example, we were not particularly interested in hats. We were interested in the inconsiderateness involved. To record the children's discussion, we used a tape recorder. We did not find that the tape recorder made the children any more self-conscious than they already were. In a few cases we found it helpful to allow the children to play with the tape recorder—to hear their voices and to make some strange noises—before we began our interviews. Also, we liked our way of interviewing our children in pairs rather than alone. We thought that the fact that there was another child present was reassuring to the children.

Sixth, analyze the material. Our way of analyzing the material we gathered has been explained in detail in this discussion. We compared the results of the sociometric questions with our observations of considerateness and inconsiderateness, noticing the relative group acceptance of the children who initiated, and who received, the considerate or inconsiderate behavior. Our analysis of the responses to our open questions took the form of developing trial categories of the responses, testing these categories by asking someone who was not a part of the study to arrange the children's responses into the categories, and then comparing these independent categorizations of the children's responses. We based our conclusions, not on the rank order in which the frequencies appeared, but merely on the fact that some kinds of responses appeared rather frequently. It was from the responses to three of our open questions, put together, that we developed our conclusions about "the data of prestige." This is not the only way that this material might be analyzed. Other ways will occur to you as you read the responses of your children to questions of this type. One difficulty we encountered was the result of our failure to make absolutely certain that we all administered these questions in the same way. If you are going to work with someone else, you cannot spend too much time making certain that you are in complete, detailed agreement concerning the directions that you are going to give the children. If your directions are not identical, it becomes very difficult to pool or even to compare the responses of your children with the responses of the children in some other classroom.

If you do carry on this analysis in your classroom, or even if you carry on any part of it, we would be very much interested in hearing what results you obtain.

Educational Research Bulletin

MAY 13, 1953

Vol. XXXII, No. 5

Intelligent Teachers and Intelligence Tests—Do They Agree?

By ROBERT E. HUBBARD AND WILLIAM R. FLESHER

THE beginning of the twentieth century marked the advent of a new theory in American education—the theory that factors of child growth and development such as personality, interests, attitudes, and intelligence are susceptible of “exact” measurement. The translation of this theory into practice resulted in a growing emphasis on objective appraisal, as evidenced in the controversial standardized-testing movement. It is unnecessary to describe in detail the issues which still center around the use of these tests. Sufficient to say, many persons are convinced that no royal road to educational measurement is to be found in the popular I.Q., P.Q., A.Q., mental age, or any other index used to “measure” the intangibles of intelligence, personality, interests, attitudes, or beliefs. In recent years, many educators have stressed a need for re-examining the rôle of the classroom teacher in the appraisal of these intangibles. While recognizing that improvements continue to be made in the development of standardized tests, these educators maintain that the evidence is not sufficient to relegate the classroom teacher to a minor rôle in the complex task of evaluation.

The study herein reported represents a partial investigation of the validity of the contentions of these persons. Specifically, the study has been designed to reveal the answer to the question: Can teachers make accurate judgments of the intelligence of their pupils? One point should be emphasized here. Whether a teacher makes accurate judgments of intelligence or not, he does make judgments. These opinions may be expressed in informal talks with other teachers, in conferences with guidance and administrative personnel, and even in personal conferences with pupils and parents concerning pupils’ future academic and

vocational plans. In many of these cases, the opinions offered are based, not on an intelligence rating from an intelligence test, but rather on information secured from the many contacts teachers have with their pupils in a variety of situations.

There is, of course, no guarantee that, even when using intelligence-test results, the teacher is certain to be working with infallible data. An individual's intelligence quotient on one intelligence test may differ greatly from his intelligence quotient on a second intelligence test, since even the theories of intelligence advanced by the test-makers are not always compatible. In fact, even the same test may yield somewhat widely varying intelligence quotients for the same person on different occasions.

A SURVEY of the literature has revealed some research dealing with the ability of teachers to judge accurately the intelligence of their pupils. One of the first reports is found in a book by L. M. Terman, *The Measurement of Intelligence*, published in 1916. It seems appropriate to discuss this reference briefly, since this early study set the stage for subsequent thought and research on the issue.

Terman, in summarizing the results of a study by Binet to determine the validity of teachers' judgments of intelligence, reported:

1. Teachers do not have a very definite idea of what constitutes intelligence. They tend to confuse it variously with capacity for memorizing, facility in reading, ability to master arithmetic, and so on. On the whole, their standard is too academic. They fail to appreciate the one-sidedness of the school's demands upon intelligence.
2. In judging intelligence teachers are too easily deceived by a sprightly attitude, a sympathetic expression, a glance of the eye, or a chance "bump" on the head.
3. Although a few teachers seem to realize the many possibilities of error, the majority show rather undue confidence in the accuracy of their judgment.¹

It is interesting to note the evidence used by Binet to justify these conclusions. One source consisted of 40 replies received from teachers in Paris in answer to two questions: "By what means do you judge the intelligence of your pupils?" and

¹ *The Measurement of Intelligence: an Explanation of and Complete Guide for the Use of the Stanford Revision and Extension of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1916. p. 31.

"How often have you been deceived in your judgment?" His second source of information consisted of having three teachers come to his laboratory to judge the intelligence of children whom they had never seen before. Binet's study is open to strong criticism, particularly in the light of his purposes. Since one of his purposes was to determine the validity of teachers' judgments of intelligence, the important thing was not how they arrived at the judgment, but rather the validity of the judgment once it was made. In addition, the artificial situation in which he asked three teachers (certainly a questionably small number for extensive conclusions) to estimate the intelligence of pupils they had never seen before is open to much criticism. The contrast between his prescribed situation and the normal situation in which the teacher is in contact with the pupil day after day for weeks, months, and even years, is self-evident.

To determine the relationship between the teachers' judgment of the intelligence of pupils and the intelligence-test results for these same pupils, the Pearson coefficient of correlation was used. A correlation of .48 resulted, a figure which Terman considered "moderately high" but not high enough to be significant.

Soon after the appearance of Terman's book, several other reported studies concerning the ability of teachers to judge the intelligence of students appeared. The correlations between teachers' judgments and the results of intelligence tests found in most of these studies were slightly higher than those based on Binet's work, as quoted by Terman. Table I summarizes the results of these early investigations.

Since the year 1924, articles concerned with this problem have not been in evidence in educational literature. It is possible that educators have concluded that the problem, for all practical purposes, has been settled. Apparently they believe the previous studies have indicated that the value to be derived from teachers' estimates of pupils' intelligence is not sufficient to warrant further investigation. The questionable validity of this assumption has been one of the prime reasons for undertaking this investigation. Is the evidence which investigators have presented sufficient to conclude that such estimates are of little practical value? Even if there are errors in judgment (and it should be remembered that these judgments continue

TABLE I

STUDIES IN WHICH TEACHERS' ESTIMATES OF PUPIL INTELLIGENCE
ARE CORRELATED WITH INTELLIGENCE-TEST RESULTS

Investigators	Number of Classes	Number of Pupils	Year Reported	Intelligence Tests Used	Correlations Reported
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Garrison and Tippett—*					
Grades IV-VIII	5	158	1922	Stanford-Binet	.45
Grades IV-VIII	5	158	1922	Otis Advanced	.61
Averill—†					
Normal-school entrants	59	1923	Otis Group Test	.64
	59	1923	Thurstone	.36
Varner—‡					
Grades III-VIII	11¶	1923	Haggerty Intelli- gence Examina- tion, Delta 2	.70
Morrison—§					
Grades III-VI	50	1,710	1924	National Intelli- gence Test, Scale A	.45
Pressey and Long—					
Grades not given	31	1,006	1924	Pressey Interme- diate Classifica- tion Test	.57

* Garrison, S. C., and Tippett, James S. "Comparison of the Binet-Simon and Otis Tests," *Journal of Educational Research*, VI (June, 1922), pp. 42-48.

† Averill, Lawrence A. "A Mental Survey of Fifty-nine Normal School Students: Some Correlations and Criticisms," *Journal of Educational Research*, VII (April, 1923), pp. 331-37.

‡ Varner, G. F. "Improvement in Rating the Intelligence of Pupils," *Journal of Educational Research*, VIII (October, 1923), pp. 220-32.

§ Morrison, J. Cayce. "Correlation of Teachers' Judgment with Intelligence Quotients," *EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN*, III (January 23, 1924), pp. 25-28, 43.

|| Pressey, S. L., and Long, Glen S. "A New Idea in Intelligence Testing," *EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN*, III (December 10, 1924), pp. 365-68.

¶ Number not reported.

to be made), are there not identifiable reasons for these errors—errors which might be corrected to some extent once these reasons are made known? These questions have served as a core around which the present study is designed. From them the following basic purposes have evolved:

1. To determine the correlation between teachers' estimates of the intelligence of pupils and intelligence-test scores (I.Q.'s)
2. To determine possible reasons for differences between teachers' judgments and intelligence-test scores (I.Q.'s)
3. To propose ways in which the combined results of teachers' estimates and intelligence-test scores (I.Q.'s) can be utilized.

IN ORDER to obtain data relative to the first purpose just stated, the co-operation of schools in which intelligence tests had not been given to a sizable number of the pupils was sought. Three schools which met this criterion expressed an interest in the project. Several teachers in each school were asked to record independently their estimates of the intelligence quotients of their pupils on forms provided for this purpose. After the estimates were made, intelligence tests were administered to these pupils and the resultant intelligence quotients were recorded on the provided form. In a fourth school (*see* School D, Table II), intelligence tests had been administered to the pupils, but the test intelligence quotients were not known by several of the teachers. These teachers recorded their estimates of their pupils' intelligence quotients on the provided forms, after which the test intelligence quotients were recorded on them.

In order to ensure a relatively common basis for the estimates to be made by the various teachers, each teacher was given a mimeographed sheet, which is reproduced here, listing interpretations of different intelligence-quotient ranges:

Most teachers are interested in checking as objectively as possible their "hunches" regarding certain characteristics of their pupils. We also are interested from an experimental point of view in having teachers do this. The attached form provides an opportunity to appraise the mental ability of each of your pupils. Certain suggestions for the use of the form are given below.

1. Before the intelligence tests are given, use Terman's classification given below and estimate the intelligence quotient of each child in your room.

Intelligence Quotients	Classification
Above 140	"Near" genius or genius
120-140	Very superior intelligence
110-119	Superior intelligence
90-109	Normal, or average, intelligence
80-89	Dullness, rarely classifiable as feeble-mindedness
70-79	Borderline deficiency, sometimes classifiable as dullness, often as feeble-mindedness
Below 70	Definite feeble-mindedness

2. In making your estimate, remember that most paper-and-pencil intelligence tests measure scholastic or academic ability. You can be guided to some extent by the child's actual performance and achievement in your room.
3. Please differentiate by using I.Q.'s, such as 91, 94, 107, etc., as well as the multiples of 5, such as 90, 95, 105, 110, etc. In other words,

try to differentiate between every two pupils as best you can rather than assign the same intelligence quotient to several pupils.

4. Arranging your class in the rank order of their apparent academic ability should be helpful in your estimating. Compare your estimate for each child with the "classification" indicated above.
5. Turn your estimates in to your principal before the intelligence test is given. The principal will then record the test results and send the form to me.

.....
 Participating teachers were asked to use this sheet as a guide in making their estimates. It should be noted, however, that each teacher was asked to give his estimate of the exact intelligence quotient of each of his pupils. In most of the earlier studies teachers had been asked to judge each pupil in terms of ranges of intelligence (for example, "inferior," "average," etc.).

FOR the four schools, 24 different teachers in Grades II-VIII estimated the intelligence quotients of their pupils in 34 different classes. In all, 763 estimates, representing 579 different pupils, were made. The Pearsonian r was computed to indicate the correlation between each teacher's estimates of his pupils' intelligence quotients and the test intelligence quotients for these pupils. The resulting correlation coefficients are presented in Table II. The mean of these correlation coefficients, .72, is higher than that found in any of the earlier studies which have been reported in Table I. Although the writers can present no supporting data for reasons why the mean correlation is higher than the reported mean correlations in earlier studies, their own impression is that teachers in today's schools have a better understanding of the factors influencing the intelligence quotient than did their predecessors who participated in these earlier studies. The teachers of today are, they believe, less likely to offer snap judgments based on a chance "bump on the head" or other extraneous factors which Binet, for example, believed to be operating in his study.

In all research in which a correlation coefficient is used, the problem of interpretation of this statistical measure arises. The reader might well ask, and probably has asked, "Just what does a correlation coefficient of .72 actually mean?" There is no simple answer to this question. This statistic is commonly used for the purpose of indicating a relationship between two variables; that is, if one variable (the teacher's estimate) is higher

for some pupils than for others, is the second variable (the test score) also higher for these pupils? The extent to which the teacher agrees with the test result on each pupil's intelligence quotient determines the numerical size of the correlation coefficient. That the correlation in this study is not perfect (1.00) indicates that the teacher's judgment and the test results are not in perfect agreement. That the correlation is relatively high (.72) indicates that the teacher's estimates and the test results agree to a high degree, at least to a greater degree than previous studies have indicated.

There is one important factor which is not accounted for

TABLE II
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS' ESTIMATES OF INTELLIGENCE AND
INTELLIGENCE-TEST RESULTS FOR PUPILS IN SEVERAL
ELEMENTARY GRADES OF FOUR OHIO SCHOOLS*

School and Grades	Number of Classes	Number of Pupils	Intelligence Tests Used	Correlations
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
School A— IV-VI	6	214	California Test of Mental Maturity	.81
School B— III-VIII	10	176	Henmon-Nelson	.72
School C— IV-VIII	11	185	Henmon-Nelson	.72
School D— II, III, VI	7	188	Henmon-Nelson, California Test of Mental Maturity	.64
All schools— II-VIII	34	76372

* Includes estimates by 24 different teachers.

when the correlation coefficient is used. If a teacher consistently overestimates or underestimates the intelligence quotient of all his pupils, a high correlation will result. In effect, this has happened in the case of several teachers in this study. For example, one of the highest correlations obtained was .84, although the teacher's estimates were an average 15 I.Q. points below the test scores. The conclusion is simply that while the teacher was able to rank his students quite accurately according to intelligence, his concept of the numerical value for "average," "superior," "below average," and other ratings differed from what the test yielded in terms of intelligence quotients for these qualitative concepts. It should be noted, however, that

even among the various intelligence tests there is disagreement concerning the meaning of any specific intelligence quotient or range of intelligence quotients. Moreover, the relatively high correlation does indicate that the teacher was able to rank his pupils in approximately the same order in which they were ranked according to the test results.

TABLE III

AVERAGE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TEACHERS' ESTIMATES OF INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS AND INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS FROM TEST RESULTS FOR OVER-AGE AND UNDER-AGE PUPILS IN THE FOUR SCHOOLS

SCHOOL	UNDER-AGE PUPILS		OVER-AGE PUPILS	
	Number of Pupils	Average Difference	Number of Pupils	Average Difference
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
School A	33	- 5.3*	108	+ .7†
School B	51	- 7.5	51	+4.1
School C	24	- 4.1	48	+ .8
School D	39	-10.0	70	-1.9
All schools	147	- 7.3	277	+ .7

* Negative value indicates that teachers' estimates were an average 5.3 intelligence-quotient points below those for the test for the 33 under-age pupils in School A.

† Positive value indicates that teachers' estimates were an average of .7 intelligence-quotient points above those for the test for the 108 over-age pupils in School A.

IN HIS book, *The Measurement of Intelligence*, Terman states that

... one of the most common errors made by the teacher is the tendency to overestimate the intelligence of the over-age pupil. This is because she fails to take account of age differences and estimates intelligence on the basis of the child's school performance in the grade where he happens to be located.

The superior child is likely to be a year or two younger than the average child of his class, and is accordingly judged by a standard which is too high.²

These tendencies, if true today, would lead to one of the more plausible reasons why teachers' judgments of intelligence are not in close agreement with intelligence-test scores. As a means of verifying the opinions expressed by Terman and thus revealing a possible source of error in teachers' judgments of intelligence, comparisons were made between teachers' judgments of

² *Op. cit.*, pp. 25, 26.

the intelligence of both over-age and under-age pupils and test intelligence quotients for the same pupils. In order to ascertain the over-age and under-age pupils in any grade, ranges of "normal" ages³ for the various grade-levels were established: Those students below the lower normal-age limit for each grade were considered under-age; those above the upper normal-age limit for each grade were considered over-age. An analysis of the intelligence quotients estimated by these teachers for pupils in these two extremes, as presented in Table III, reveals that Terman's original assumption that teachers apparently do not consider the age factor in estimating the intelligence of their pupils is still valid. The intelligence of the older pupil, better adjusted as a result of maturity level, is apparently judged by standards applicable to the pupil of average age. The younger pupil, judged by a standard of intelligence applicable to a pupil of average age, rates lower in intelligence in the teacher's opinion than in the test results.

THE reader may think, at this point, that there is a hidden implication in this study—the implication that since teachers' judgments of pupils' intelligence are as accurate, or at least can be made as accurate, as scores derived from intelligence tests, they should someday replace the intelligence test. Such is not the case. Primarily, the purpose of the study has been to indicate that teachers are more accurate in their estimates of the intelligence of their pupils than is usually believed. In one sense, the results of this study should give the teacher added confidence in the estimates which he invariably makes of the intelligence of his pupils. In another sense, a note of caution, implying that these judgments are far from infallible, merits consideration. Taken together, the preceding statements indicate a kind of interdependence between the teacher's estimates and the test results.

There are several ways, it seems to the writers, in which this procedure of combining teachers' estimates and test results can be helpful to the classroom teacher. The trend in education

³ Computed on the assumption that pupils entering Grade I must be six years old by January 1 of the school year. Possible ages for entrants on September 1 range, therefore, from five years, nine months, to six years, nine months. Normal ages were considered to range from six years to six years, six months, on September 1. If ages of all entrants are distributed normally, this group would constitute the middle fifty per cent of the class in age. For the second grade, "normal" ages would range from seven years to seven years, six months; for the third grade, from eight years to eight years, six months, and so on.

today is toward more recognition of the teacher as a guidance "specialist." In this capacity he must know each and all of his pupils. One aspect of this knowledge is his ability to distinguish correctly the intellectual capacities of his pupils. It might be beneficial, therefore, for him to estimate the intelligence of each of his pupils (in such terms as the intelligence quotient or mental age) after he feels sure that he knows them but before he actually consults the records for their intelligence ratings. To provide an over-all picture of his ability to judge accurately the "group" intelligence, averages of the test intelligence quotients and the teacher-estimated intelligence ratings could be compared. To some extent this procedure would provide a basis for answering the questions: Am I expecting too much from this class, or am I rationalizing for a class whose achievement "expectancy" in terms of intelligence is perhaps greater than I have estimated?

Of more importance to the teacher should be the information he can deduce from an analysis of individual ratings. An estimated intelligence-quotient rating of 90 compared with a test I.Q. of 130 (an actual case in this study) certainly merits attention by the teacher, and should lead to an investigation of the reasons why this estimate was so much lower than the test indicated the intelligence quotient to be. One of the most common errors in estimation, that of overestimating the intelligence of the older pupils and underestimating the intelligence of younger pupils, may be the reason for wide discrepancies in some cases. There are other possible reasons—basing the estimate on past achievement or personality factors such as attentiveness, home background, need for discipline, loquaciousness, and a myriad of other possible factors. And still another factor could be responsible for the error—the inadequacy of the intelligence test from which the intelligence quotient was obtained!

IN RECENT years increased emphasis has been placed on teacher self-evaluation as a basic step in improving teaching. Unfortunately, techniques for developing this ability are seldom cited. It seems to the writers that the technique described in this study offers excellent possibilities in this area. The teacher, confronted with the results of his estimates of intelligence and the results obtained from intelligence tests, should conceivably be

[Continued on page 139]

What Is the Capacity of Your High-School Building?

By M. J. CONRAD

THE question of how many pupils a given secondary-school building will house is a frequent one to which neither the school administrator nor the survey specialist has had an adequate technique of finding the answer. Yet, with secondary schools beginning to face serious school-housing problems, it is extremely necessary to assess accurately the numerical adequacy of existing buildings in order to plan the necessary additional school-plant facilities.

Studies of utilization, although not developed primarily to determine operating capacities of buildings, have long been used to assess the quantitative adequacy of secondary-school buildings. However, studies of utilization, when used to determine operating capacities, have certain major shortcomings. The utilization study is based upon arbitrary standards—standards upon which even authorities do not agree. Since the technique of capacity determination based upon utilization studies not only fails to consider the type of educational program but also fails to consider the degree to which the building is adaptable to the educational program, it gives a distorted picture of the true operating capacity. Moreover, since it is generally agreed that 100-per cent utilization is impracticable, it becomes necessary to set some arbitrary optimal percentage of utilization as the basis for capacity determination. Such an optimal percentage of utilization has never been generally accepted.

Furthermore, it is commonly agreed by most educators and specialists in the school-plant field that school buildings should be planned in terms of the educational program to be carried on in the building. If we accept this basic principle, it follows that the capacity of a given building is a direct function of the educational program to be carried on in it. From this basic principle as a point of reference, the question arises whether an optimal percentage of utilization exists which is applicable to secondary-school buildings in general or whether the optimal percentages of utilization which have been suggested in the past may be no more than the chance relationship of the existing buildings studied to their educational programs.

It should be pointed out at this time that the criticisms which have been made do not apply to utilization studies in general but only to the use of them in determining capacities. In his development of the utilization study, Morphet indicated numerous valid uses, but cautioned against its use as a measure of capacity.¹

The problem, then, has been to relate capacity to the functional use of buildings, and to develop a technique for determining the practical operating capacity of a secondary-school building in relation to a specific educational program. The basic approach in developing this capacity-determining technique has been a reversal of the well-established school building-planning formulas such as those developed by Anderson² and Packer.³ The fundamental assumption underlying the new approach is that capacity is integrally related to the educational program and policies of each school system rather than dependent upon arbitrary standards applicable to all school situations. This assumption is really a corollary to a long-standing basic principle of school-building planning; namely, that a school building should be planned in terms of the educational program to be carried on in it.

IN ORDER to develop a capacity technique consistent with this basic assumption, it was necessary to analyze the many factors of educational program and policies related to the capacity of secondary-school buildings. The following factors were included in this analysis: number and types of teaching stations, suitability of rooms, size of rooms and number of pupil stations, desirable average class-size, room-assignment policies, nature of the educational program, length and number of periods, staggered schedules, multiple sessions, specialization of rooms, and the complexity of the pattern of subject elections. Many of these factors were found to be so closely related that their effect upon capacity could be accounted for by a single multiple factor. After these various factors had been analyzed to determine their

¹ Morphet, E. L. *The Measurement and Interpretation of School Building Utilization*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. p. 93 (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 264).

² Anderson, H. W. *A Method for Determining the Housing Requirements of Junior High School Programs*. Iowa City, Iowa: State University of Iowa, 1926. 56 pp. (Studies in Education, Vol. III, No. 3).

³ Packer, P. C. *Housing of High School Programs*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. 51 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 159).

interrelationship and their net effect upon capacity, they were synthesized into the following capacity formula:

$$BC = \frac{TS \times DS \times T \times E}{PP}$$

in which

BC is the building capacity which could be accommodated by existing facilities in a given subject area;

TS is the total number of teaching stations in a given subject area;

DS is the desirable average class size for the particular subject area;

T is the total effective periods of instruction per week in the schedule of classes;

E is the average total school enrollment for a given period of time; and

PP is the average total number of pupil periods of instruction per week in the given subject area for the same period of time.⁴

In order to determine the operating capacity of a building, it is necessary to apply the formula to each subject area separately. This process determines the total school enrollment which could be accommodated in each subject area of the building. The lowest pupil capacity thus obtained for any subject area is the maximum school enrollment which can be housed in the building without modification either of the building or the educational program. When a building is ill-fitted to the educational program, these capacity limits of the different subject areas will vary considerably. In such cases, it is often possible to adapt the excess spaces in those subject areas with high pupil-capacity limits to those areas with low pupil-capacity limits, and thus to increase the total operating capacity of the building.

An analysis of the many factors related to school-building capacity clearly indicated the impracticability of utilizing every room or every pupil station in a secondary-school building every period of the day. Although it would appear that the capacity technique makes no allowance for this factor, such is not the case. The formula does not contain a correction factor as such, but the technique of application of the formula does compensate for the impracticability of using every room and every pupil station every period of the day. Further analysis of the impracticability of 100-per cent utilization showed that the allowances had to be adapted to the individual school situation, and could not therefore be lumped into a single factor and included in the

⁴ Conrad, Marion J. "A Technique for Determining the Operating Capacity of Secondary School Buildings." 1952. pp. 56-61. Doctor's thesis on file in the library of Ohio State University.

formula itself. The allowance to compensate for the impracticability of using every pupil station every period of the day is included in several factors of the formula. The greatest single allowance, however, comes from applying the formula to each individual subject area separately.

In view of the fact that the capacity formula contains many factors which are multiple in nature and not readily available to the school administrator, it seemed expedient to develop forms for collecting and processing the raw data. Thus, forms with detailed instructions have been developed which define the step-by-step process of determining the capacity of a secondary-school building and make it relatively easy to apply. These forms and instructions, along with detailed illustrations, are contained in "A Manual for Determining the Operating Capacity of Secondary-School Buildings" which will be available from the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, on or about June 1, 1953.

ALTHOUGH the capacity-determining technique is primarily one for determining the operating capacity of a secondary-school building for the existing program, the capacity formula does have a number of other uses:

Capacity for Projected Use of Buildings—Since the technique differentiates the many factors of educational program and educational policies of a given school, it is equally applicable in determining the capacity of buildings for some projected use. In these days of changing educational programs, the school administrator may wish to determine the effect which a given change in educational program will have on the capacity of the building, or whether the building will actually house the projected educational program. School authorities may also be considering the merits of a changed daily-program organization or other administrative policy. The capacity of the existing building under the present and changed program organization will furnish the superintendent with valuable additional data upon which to base his final decision. Likewise, the capacity of an existing building can be determined for different types of vertical school organization. A decided difference in the operating capacity of an existing building for junior- or senior-high school purposes may well dictate whether another junior- or senior-high school building is to be built.

Overcrowding—In addition to determining the total operating capacity of an existing building, the new technique determines the subject areas where overcrowding is taking place and measures the degree of such overcrowding. By comparing the subject-area capacities with

projected school enrollments, it is possible to predict when and in which subject areas overcrowding will take place.

Planning School-Plant Improvements—Since the capacity technique establishes the relationship of capacity to educational program and policies, it is useful in the planning of new secondary-school buildings or in the remodeling or enlargement of existing buildings. Although similar, this technique is superior for determining housing requirements, primarily because it recognizes and takes into account the impracticability of 100-per cent utilization.

THIS capacity-determining technique constitutes only one of a series of steps to be taken into consideration in measuring the adequacy of existing secondary-school buildings. Any comprehensive survey of school-plant facilities must include the qualitative aspects of school plant as well as the quantitative ones measured by this capacity technique. It is assumed that consideration has been given to the quality of existing rooms and that the facilities justify their continued use and inclusion as available teaching stations in the capacity study.

Although no formal evaluation has been made of the capacity-determining technique, it has been used in many schools, and the reactions to it which have come from principals, superintendents, school-plant co-ordinators, and special building consultants in the school-plant field who have seen it in operation have been most favorable. Superintendents and principals have generally accepted the building capacity determined by the new formula as the basis for appraising the numerical adequacy of existing school plants and for determining needed additional school-plant facilities. In those cases where the capacity-determining technique indicated that areas of overcrowding existed, there has been no single instance of disagreement on the part of principals or superintendents that such overcrowding actually existed. Superintendents' reactions have been most favorable toward that function of the new capacity technique which permits determination of building capacities under varying conditions of vertical school organization and projected educational programs and policies.

The Survey Division staff of the Bureau of Educational Research has found this new capacity technique very useful in its surveys of school-plant needs throughout the state. For years the Survey staff has made utilization studies of secondary-school buildings in order to estimate their numerical adequacy.

However, it has never been willing to set an operating capacity for an existing secondary-school building on the basis of such studies, but has had to resort to generalities concerning overcrowding or poor utilization. The new capacity technique has obviated this difficulty.

[Vol. XXXII, No. 5]

Reaction to Student Teachers

By HENRY L. ASHMORE

QUESTIONS are frequently asked as to how elementary- and high-school pupils react to student teachers, and whether the parents of these pupils really want their children to attend a school where students in training are teaching. The college administrators are usually concerned with this problem, and they are interested regarding the public relations which exist between public-school centers co-operating in the program and the college. The writer has frequently heard it said that parents do not want their children being used as "guinea pigs," or that the average pupil will learn more when under the regular teacher, and many similar remarks. It was only natural that at Georgia Teachers College we were curious as to the answers to these questions as they concerned us and our co-operating centers.

Georgia Teachers College had been using five co-operating centers for a period of two years when we decided to find out what the pupils and parents thought of the program of student teaching. Although we now have eight co-operating centers in addition to the campus laboratory school, only five off-campus centers were in use when we made a survey of opinion in the winter quarter of 1952. We thought our program had been relatively successful since we have had many requests from near-by schools to participate in it; however, we wanted specific reactions. Consequently, we prepared a questionnaire to be sent to all the parents and pupils of each one of the co-operating centers.

Our first step was to seek the aid of the principals of the public schools, the supervising teachers, and the student teachers. With their expressed willingness—indeed, they were very eager to know the results—we began consideration of our questionnaire. We wanted it short, concise, and simple, know-

ing full well the inherent dangers of a complicated form. Basically, we wanted answers to the following questions:

1. Do you enjoy having student teachers in your school?
2. Do you think the school has benefited from having these student teachers?
3. Do you think the pupils (we sent the questionnaire only to the high schools) have benefited from having the student teachers?
4. Have you learned more or less in classes where you had a student teacher?
5. Do you want the school to continue to have student teachers?
6. Why do you like to have student teachers?
7. Why do you dislike to have student teachers?

We finally decided to word these questions substantially the same for the pupils and parents. Obviously, on the parents' questionnaire we left out the fourth question.

The questionnaires were given to all the pupils in the high schools. We received answers from almost all of the pupils. This was accomplished by distributing the questionnaires in home rooms and collecting them as soon as completed. We sent the parents' questionnaires to each parent who had a child in classes directed by student teachers. Approximately 68 per cent of these were completed and returned by the parents.

THE results from the four schools used in the survey follow. The fifth school was included in our plans but the returns have been misplaced; however, the results in this school were substantially the same as the ones given in the following table:

	Total Number	Per Cent
1. Do you like having student teachers?	558	90
Yes	26	4
No	38	6
Don't care		
2. Has the school benefited from having student teachers?	502	82
Yes	30	5
No	81	13
Don't know		
3. Have the pupils benefited from having student teachers?	506	83
Yes	41	7
No	63	10
Don't know		
4. Have you learned more or less under student teachers?	278	48
More	43	8
Less	256	44
Same		
5. Do you want the school to continue the program?	539	89
Yes	21	3
No	51	8
Don't care		

It is noteworthy that the majority of the high-school pupils enjoyed the student teachers (90 per cent), thought the school had benefited (82 per cent), believed the high-school pupils had benefited (83 per cent), and wanted the program continued (89 per cent). It is interesting also that 48 per cent thought they had learned more under the student teachers than under the regular teachers, 44 per cent indicating no difference in learning.

Even more significant perhaps were the answers to Questions 6 and 7 on the pupils' questionnaires. The most frequent answers to the question, "Why do you like student teachers?" are given here:

	Number of Pupils
Pupils receive more individual attention.....	146
Change of teachers is good.....	84
Student teachers are friendly and helpful.....	138
Different and various methods are used.....	109
They understand us better.....	63
The instruction is less monotonous.....	42
They know our problems.....	38
Student teachers seem more interested in what they teach.....	33
They have better dispositions than regular teachers.....	17

Of course, many other reasons were mentioned, but these were given most frequently. The answers to Question 7, "Why do you dislike student teachers?" follow:

	Number of Pupils
The change slows down our classes.....	23
They give too much homework.....	16
They disrupt class plans.....	8
They have favorites.....	9
They mark too strictly.....	10
They are uninteresting.....	4
They confuse me.....	3

AS ALREADY stated, the questionnaire for the parents left out the question as to whether the pupils learned more or less under the student teachers. Otherwise, the questionnaire was substantially the same. The results are given in the following table:

	Total Number	Per Cent
1. Do you like having student teachers?		
Yes.....	149	87
No.....	2	1
Don't care.....	21	12
2. Has the school benefited from having student teachers?		
Yes.....	139	81

No	2	1
Don't know	30	18
3. Have the pupils benefited from having student teachers?		
Yes	137	86
No	3	2
Don't know	19	12
4. Do you want the school to continue the program?		
Yes	146	86
No	2	1
Don't care	22	13

As in the case of the pupils, the vast majority of the parents liked having student teachers (87 per cent), thought the school had benefited (81 per cent), thought the pupils had benefited (86 per cent), and wanted the school to continue the program (86 per cent).

When asked how the school had benefited, the following answers were given:

	Number of Parents
Pupils receive more individual attention	57
They set good examples	23
They are enthusiastic about teaching	34
They encourage pupils to go on to college	8
They encourage pupils to go on to college	12
It is an honor for the school	19
They appear interested in the pupils	6
They relieve the load of the regular teachers	14
They create interest and give variety	

It is interesting to note that the parents' remarks were similar to those of the high-school pupils. A striking similarity is the fact that both mentioned help for individual pupils and caring for individual differences most frequently. The unfavorable reactions from the parents were as follows:

	Number of Parents
Student teachers are not thorough enough	7
Regular teachers are more efficient	4
High-school pupils do not need so many teachers ..	3
Student teachers are not conscientious	2
No progress under some	2

As a result of this survey, the college teachers concerned and the principals of the co-operating schools believe we have the answers to our questions concerning the parents' and pupils' attitudes toward the student-teaching program. We have concrete evidence as a result of our questionnaires that the parents and pupils overwhelmingly appreciate the unique contributions of the student teachers toward a school program, and that they are more than willing to continue to help in the ever expanding program of training a professional group of persons to carry on good classroom teaching.

The Survey Division: a Special Report

By ARTHUR W. FOSHAY

FOR the first time in the history of the Bureau of Educational Research, it has been necessary this year to disappoint the majority of the boards of education who have come to the Survey Division for assistance with their school-building problems. The frequency with which such requests have been denied has, in fact, led to the belief in some quarters that the Bureau is no longer rendering such service. The purposes of this brief announcement are to correct that false impression, to explain the present difficulty, and to describe briefly how the Bureau is trying to remedy the situation.

From the time of its founding about a third of a century ago, the Bureau has made surveys of various kinds for boards of education and other public agencies in Ohio. Exclusive of minor assistance to many districts, the Survey Division has completed approximately 260 surveys since its inception.

Until the Second World War, the number of requests for surveys was small. One professional staff member, with occasional additional help, was able to carry the entire survey load and still have time for the many other duties incidental to membership in the faculties of the College of Education and the Graduate School. This easy pace in the survey field was due in part to the relative newness of the survey approach, but in large part was the result of lack of schoolhouse construction. Low birth rates, depression, and wartime building restrictions kept the volume of schoolhouse construction low and the number of requests for surveys small.

Members of boards of education and school superintendents know full well the change that has occurred since the war. High birth rates have brought large increases in enrollment, and the end is not in sight. In addition to new construction to house this increased number of pupils, there has been, and is, a vast pool of replacement needs resulting from almost two decades of failure to replace outworn and outmoded structures. Since the war, voters have been quite willing to approve bond issues for building purposes, and the total of such approvals in Ohio since the end of the war is approximately \$442,000,000.

The increased activity in the field of schoolhouse construc-

tion quite naturally has resulted in an increase in the number of requests for surveys. The Survey Division in 1945 made available to boards of education a new service in the educational planning of specific new buildings. This new service involves working with the school staff to set up educational specifications for the building and collaborating with the architect to see that the desired educational features are actually provided in the plans.

While the pressure in the Survey Division has been mounting steadily for several years, it has been possible until this year to honor all requests for assistance within a reasonable time. This is not true in 1952-53. Last October 1, at the start of the current academic year, the Survey Division had already scheduled enough surveys and building-planning projects for the entire year. In fact, it had committed itself in this field to the point of endangering the opportunities of its staff members to carry on effectively the other activities normally expected of University faculty members.

Since October 1, 1952, about 50 additional requests for assistance have been received. Compare this figure with 260—all the surveys conducted by this Bureau since 1920—and the magnitude of the problem is apparent. In every case it has been necessary to refuse any early assistance except of very minor nature. Some of the requested surveys have been scheduled for 1953-54. In other cases the superintendent of schools or some other local staff member has decided to conduct his own survey or building-planning work under the guidance of the Survey Division staff. In a few cases, where the Survey Division staff already had a considerable understanding of the problem, it agreed to participate in one conference on campus after the superintendent had collected certain specified information. In other cases, the board of education decided that it could not wait and proceeded without assistance from the Bureau.

SUCH is the problem, but what of its solution? There are several measures possible, but no one of them alone is sufficient. The steps being considered are increasing the Survey Division staff and shifting more of the burden of surveys and building-planning projects to local school authorities.

The present staff of the Survey Division is made up of two full-time professors and a group of research assistants and secretaries. This year, a request for the addition of one professional

staff member was approved by the University administration for asking-budget purposes. However, the State Legislature must approve the request before any appointment can be made. At this writing, it is impossible to predict whether the request will be allowed. There are a great many conflicting valid requests that the Legislature must reconcile.

While the services of a third staff member are clearly needed, such an increase in staff will not wholly solve the problem. Our experience has shown that the making of a survey or the giving of assistance on a building-planning project in a given locality often is followed by several other requests from the same section of the state. This would suggest that an increase in the staff that would enable the Bureau to make more surveys would simply result in more requests.

It seems obvious that a part of the solution must be found in developing techniques to enable the local school authorities to carry more of the burden of conducting their own surveys and building-planning projects. Some progress has been made along this line, but this approach has not been systematically planned. Materials of the "workbook" type should be prepared for use in collecting and analyzing the essential data, and suitable instructions must be prepared for doing various parts of the work. With such materials, the local school authorities could carry a larger part of the total burden than is now the case, and at the same time they could have the assistance of the Survey Division in planning their study, in doing some of the more technical aspects of the job, in checking their work, and in formulating the recommendations.

As we see it, the issuance of such materials would have the additional advantage of making the local school administration more nearly able to cope with this class of local problem.

For the immediate future these possibilities seem to add up as follows: The Bureau of Educational Research will continue its efforts to increase the staff of the Survey Division. Whatever the outcome of these efforts, the Survey Division staff will take some time next year to develop materials which will enable local school authorities to carry more of the burden of their own building studies. This will inconvenience some boards of education, but in the long run will be to the advantage of many more. Finally, the Bureau will reappraise all the work of the Survey Division, in order to make its activities square with the most pressing school needs in Ohio.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

Wanted: Ability to Use Words Effectively

ONE of the greatest needs of many educators is ability to write well—to express their ideas effectively in English prose. In many cases, unfortunately, persons for whom this need is very great are unaware of it; it is not a “felt need.”

It would, of course, be unrealistic to expect all educators to write with literary distinction. But it is not too much to expect that their exposition be clear and well organized and show a decent respect for the canons of good usage. Too many fail to meet these standards.

Writing, of course, is a highly complex art, requiring understandings, habits, and skills of many kinds. Hence there are many shortcomings that writers can have. It is my purpose here to discuss one fairly common fault of educational writers—their inability to use words and phrases with discrimination, precision, and economy—and to make suggestions for its correction.

This defect is not one which Rudolph Flesch and other writers on readability have been discussing. They are concerned with the length and familiarity of the words used, the average length of sentences, and so on. The work of these writers undoubtedly has made a contribution to the improvement of writing. But, as Fitzgerald has shown so brilliantly, it is easy to overemphasize the importance of their formulas.¹

The failure to use words and phrases with discrimination, precision, and economy takes various forms. Sometimes it is the result of a fad; that is, the overuse and misuse of a term that has caught the popular fancy. “In terms of” is a good current example. Careless writers use it when they should use “in relation to,” “in view of,” “according to,” or some other phrase. “In terms of” has its place, but it is now so badly misused that a writer should not use it without taking special care to see that it is the phrase he wants.

Another form of the trouble we are discussing is the erroneous use of figures of speech. Figurative language is necessary, of course, if writing is to have color and life. But its use requires special care if unintended and even ridiculous results are to be

¹ “Literature by Slide Rule,” *Saturday Review*, XXVI (February 14, 1953), pp. 15–16.

avoided. For example, "The workaday world . . . can have a suffocating effect on one's perspective" contains a badly mixed metaphor; it is possible to limit or distort a perspective but not to suffocate it. "The objectives underlying the school's program . . ." is another example of the misuse of figurative language. Objectives are goals out in front that one is trying to reach; they are not underneath what one is doing.

One of the more common faults in using words and phrases is redundancy. "It is difficult, on an a priori basis . . ." is a case in point; "it is difficult, a priori . . ." says the same thing better. Similarly, "consensus of opinion" should be "consensus," as the dictionary makes clear.

Many of the errors of educational writers are not peculiar to them, but are widespread among other people. Many persons say "I am anxious to . . ." when they have no anxiety whatever about the matter under discussion; they mean "eager to." Members of a group cannot have "mutual problems," unless they themselves are problems to each other; what they mean when they use the expression is "common problems."

So much for some of the types of error in the use of words and phrases. What can a writer do to improve his command of words? The first thing, of course, is to get a "realizing sense" of his need for improvement. The next is to develop the habit of considering carefully the precise meaning of the words and phrases that he uses. If he has the opportunity to work with a person who is skillful in the use of words and phrases, he should take advantage of it. Practicing any art under the guidance of a competent critic is a most effective way of learning it. This is the way we learn to play the piano, paint, or diagnose disease.

Whether or not he works with an adviser on English usage, the writer should make constant use of the various aids that are available—the unabridged dictionary, dictionary of synonyms, thesaurus, and various other works on English usage. It is evident that some educational writers seldom or never use such aids.

There is one of these aids to good usage that deserves special mention. It is *ABC of Plain Words*, by Sir Ernest Gowers.² This is a sequel to *Plain Words*, both of which were written at the request of the British Treasury to help in improving official English. The present book, unlike the earlier one, is organized

[Continued on page 140]

² London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1951.



Books to Read

DAVIDSON, ROBERT F. *Philosophies Men Live By*. New York: Dial Press, 1952. vii+484 pp.

A quotation from William James expresses the purpose of this volume: "To know the chief rival attitudes toward life as the history of thinking has developed them, and to have heard some of the reasons they can give for themselves ought to be considered an essential part of liberal education." These chief rival attitudes as the author presents them are: I, "The Pursuit of Pleasure"; II, "The Life of Reason"; III, "The Urge of Progress"; and IV, "The Compulsion of the Ideal." Out of the consideration of them comes "A Philosophy for These Times." Eight pages of suggested readings offer abundant material for filling the leisure hours of the inquisitive student.

Each of the rival points of view is illustrated by instances from the classic philosophers and from some more recent representative writer, who is not always a technical philosopher, but taken from some field akin in interest—journalism or religion. Thus the pursuit of pleasure was the primary motive in three philosophies: the popular hedonism of the Cyrenaics, Epicurus, and Lin Yutang; in an altruistic form in the hedonism of Bentham and J. S. Mill; and in a form which led to pessimism in the case of Schopenhauer.

The life of reason was the aim of the early rationalists, the stoics, the scientific rationalism of Spinoza, and the humanism of Walter Lippmann.

The urge of progress marks the radical naturalism of Nietzsche, the pragmatism of William James, and the naturalistic humanism of John Dewey.

The compulsion of the ideal is found in the rational idealism of Plato, the combination of idealism and rationalism of Aristotle, the moral imperative of Kant, and the Christian idealism of Reinhold Niebuhr.

A philosophy for these times will recognize that each of the tendencies considered has a certain truth in it; each is a perspective upon a truth that is more final than any, because it is more inclusive. Each view is presented in a calm and judicious way, and upon each is brought to bear a fair critical judgment, though the comments will not always be what the reader might make. The exposition is well balanced and accurate. The style is graceful and readable. The volume is the most attractive introduction to philosophy that has appeared for some time.

ALBERT E. AVEY

OLSON, O. JOE, editor. *Education on the Air: Twenty-first Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio and Television*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1952. viii+519 pp.

For more than twenty years the yearbooks of the annual Institute for Education by Radio and Television of Ohio State University have reflected the ideas of both commercial and educational broadcasters on every subject

from the operation of a 10-watt station to problems of international broadcasting.

Following on the heels of important developments in the field of television, including the nation-wide interest in the Kefauver Commission hearings, the proceedings of the Twenty-first Institute center on the problem child of mass communication—television. In this yearbook, then, we find hopes, fears, and predictions, foolish and wise as events may prove them to be, of broadcasters, educators, public figures, and just plain folks, as they talked about TV in 1951.

For example, we find Senator William Benton describing television as an "instrument which can transform and uplift human relations" (page 8). We read the comment of a successful commercial telecaster who estimated with regard to the Philadelphia political conventions, that "50 teachers could have talked for 15 hours each and the students wouldn't have learned as much about politics and conventions as from one day at the television set" (page 49). An educational broadcaster warns that "studies have already shown that television in the home does tend to affect the school grades of children" (page 71). And we hear the challenge to education sounded by Federal Communications Commissioner Frieda B. Hennock: "Since all TV channels are to be finally allocated by the Commission in the very near future, education's failure to obtain its proper share now would forever foreclose it from any substantial rôle in television" (pages 140-41).

Events have moved swiftly in the television field. Several more millions of sets have come into use during the past two years, and dozens of new problems have arisen. But in the more than five hundred pages of this yearbook basic issues are discussed which will remain as long as the air waves are in "the public domain," and as long as we seek to use radio and television for more than purposes of sheer entertainment.

ROBERT W. WAGNER

McGEHEE, FLORENCE. *Please Excuse Johnny*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1952. viii+242 pp.

This is a very readable book which seems light, but which proves very thought-provoking. The author begins by telling how, instead of becoming a supervisor, as she intended, she became a truant officer, "a hooky cop," in a California fruit- and vegetable-growing area. In a series of candid and apparently artless sketches, she tells of the people she met in the line of duty, the children and their families, and the economic and social situations which made school attendance difficult, or impossible, or irrelevant.

The little stories are told with sympathy and understanding warmth, and the author's sense of humor keeps herself and her job always in perspective, so that the real problems emerge clearly. The cumulative effect of the book is to make these problems seem to dwarf the means available for meeting them. However, it is not a gloomy book. There are charming pictures of children who rose above their backgrounds, and occasional sardonic jabs at smug "good families." All the stories ring so true that one wonders how the author can possibly have disguised them enough to continue in her job.

The reader may thank his stars that the schools of his community do not need to cope with migrants, happy-go-lucky Mexican families, Indians from

the reservation, and the other colorful characters that populate this book. The chances are, however, that the school population of any community would show fringe groups as varied and as little accepted as those sketched by Mrs. McGehee. She has posed in unusually readable form the perpetual problem faced by democracy's public schools, and people will do well to ponder her deceptively artless little book.

MARGARET WILLIS

CAMPBELL, CLYDE M., editor. *Practical Applications of Democratic Administration*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952. x+325 pp.

During the period of world-wide struggle between the concepts of democracy and authoritarianism, it behooves the American public school to support our way of life not only in the lessons taught by the teacher in the classroom but also by example in the way it conducts its affairs. In this setting it is a distinct service to disseminate any information which will help schools generally to be more successful in their efforts to democratize their practices.

The current volume is a symposium to which twelve Michigan educators contributed. The scope is broader than the title suggests, since only a little more than half of the pages are in chapters dealing with practical applications. The first and last parts, comprising six chapters, deal with the underlying theory, the implications for the preparation of educational leaders, and possible future trends.

The seven middle chapters, written by public-school administrators, describe the efforts made in several Michigan communities to apply the principles of democratic administration to solving a variety of school and community problems. The descriptions are interesting and provocative, but might have been improved by sharper focus on the democratic principles involved.

JOHN H. HERRICK

1 1 1

Intelligent Teachers and Intelligence Tests—Do They Agree?

[Continued from page 122]

faced with such questions as: What accounts for the discrepancies between my judgments and the test results? How well do I really know the capabilities of my pupils? What means are available for improving my judgments of pupil intelligence? When evaluation becomes internal, when the teacher finds that he is focusing questions on himself, he is engaged in the process of self-evaluation.

Teachers' judgments of pupils are unquestionably not re-

stricted to the area of intelligence. Certainly teachers' opinions, usually expressed in informal talks with pupils, parents, teachers, or administrators, extend to the areas of personality, attitudes, interests, and the like. The accuracy of these judgments is, however, debatable. It seems to the writers that the method employed in this investigation could profitably be employed in similar studies in these areas. Such studies would involve comparisons between the subjective judgments of teachers and the objective results obtained from the use of various measuring devices. It is the writers' opinion that in these areas, as in the area of intelligence, the "sophisticated" judgments of teachers are much more reliable than is usually believed by both educators and laymen.

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Wanted: Ability to Use Words Effectively

[Continued from page 136]

under headings alphabetically arranged. It is, therefore, handy for reference. Its clarity, common sense, and humor make it delightful, not only for reference, but as reading. Here is a typical example of how it deals with its subject-matter.

Bottleneck is a useful and picturesque metaphor to denote the point of constriction of something that ought to be flowing freely.

Even if the manufacturers could obtain ample raw material, the shortage of skilled labour would constitute a bottleneck in production.

The metaphor is not new, but it has recently had a sharp rise in popularity, perhaps because our economy has been so full of bottlenecks. It needs to be handled carefully in order to avoid absurdity: it is necessary to remember that the most troublesome bottleneck is not the biggest but the smallest.

We can think of no better book with which to begin the job of improving one's English. Nor is this little book useful only to the beginner; on the contrary, it can be very useful to the person who already writes well.

We are convinced that, for many educators, the best approach to improving their writing is the one outlined here rather than the one played up by the writers on readability. It is more important to use words with precision than to use short words or words of Anglo-Saxon origin. Long sentences are not as great a defect in writing as the inaccurate use of words and phrases.

R. H. E.

Educational Research Bulletin

SEPTEMBER 16, 1953

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Education and Universal Human Rights

By HARRY A. GRACE

THE General Assembly of the United Nations
“... considering that the text of the Declaration should be disseminated among all peoples throughout the world, . . . recommends Governments of Member States to show their adherence to Article 56 of the Charter by using every means within their power solemnly to publicize the text of the Declaration and to cause it to be disseminated, displayed, read and expounded principally in schools and other educational institutions . . .”

This action was approved by the United Nations in a decisive vote in 1948. It stimulated us to conduct research on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. We believed that much had to be known about reactions of persons to the Declaration before they could be educated about its implications.

We divided the Declaration into simple sentences and presented it to 120 undergraduate students as an attitude test. They were not aware that it was the Declaration to which they were reacting. We called it the “I Believe That . . .” Test. On Form A we asked each student to indicate his agreement, disagreement, or doubt about each item. Form B, administered two weeks later, presented the student with a list of ten countries. For each item in the Declaration he was to select the nation which he thought would most likely agree, disagree, or doubt that statement. Thus he gave three answers for each item. Form C asked him to rate the ten nations with regard to the amount of information he had about them. We could then compare the students’ personal acceptance of each item, their estimations of the way various nations would react to it, and the amount they thought they knew about each nation. The results of this study reveal some of the difficulties one might expect to encounter in a program designed to educate people about the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

PERHAPS most revealing of the underlying attitudes were, first, the methods by which students answered the questions; and second, their comments upon the test. Those who strongly favored or opposed the Declaration considered an attitude of doubt concerning it the equivalent of rejection. Those who most frequently expressed doubt, however, considered doubt to be an independent third position. Therefore, if you agreed or disagreed with the articles of the Declaration you recognized no middle ground, you considered everyone to be for it or against it. Only if you had doubt about the Declaration could you understand a third position. This was borne out in the comments students were invited to make at the end of the test. Some remarked that it was an unfair test because only two choices were possible, the United States and Soviet Russia, even though they had the opportunity to choose from among ten nations: Brazil, China, Egypt, France, India, Liberia, Norway, Soviet Russia, the United Kingdom, the United States.

The more a student knew about a nation, the more apt he was to consider its voting in favor of the Declaration. The nations about which least was known were considered to have doubts about the Declaration. Those which the students appeared to be least well-informed about were Liberia, Egypt, Brazil, and Norway, in that order.

A substantial majority agree with the Declaration, but there are some disquieting features about this agreement when one analyzes the responses more carefully. Forty-one per cent considered the test to be either a loyalty oath or a test of communist affiliation. One-half of the sample commented upon the vagueness of the wording, its ambiguity, or its abstractness. A quarter believed that this was a test of peace, idealism, utopian ideals, or the perfect personality. The same percentage thought it to be a test of personal prejudices. Comments such as these from a group of educated persons portend great difficulty for the educator who would inform the general public about this important document.

ARTICLES in the Declaration may be categorized into four major areas. These reflect the students' personal choices and the choices they assign to the nations.

Items with which there is greatest agreement indicate a concern for the rights of the individual. The United States is seen as the champion of these rights, and Soviet Russia as the

challenger. Protection of the individual, his rights, and his property are most important. There is no middle ground in this debate.

The next category of items which found favor were those which both the United States and the United Kingdom were believed to support in opposition to Soviet Russia. Concern is with law and order, freedom of association and of movement within the nation, and the right to have a nationality. These articles demonstrate an interest in the group and its foundations. Individualism gives way to citizenship in these items.

The importance of the job, of work and social security, is reflected in the third group of items. Persons agree less with these than with the two preceding groups. These articles are seen as dividing Anglo-America on the one hand from Soviet Russia, and from Asia on the other. The primary split, however, lies between Europe and Asia, for the Soviet Union vacillates between these areas in the opinion of the students. Emphasis is placed upon conditions rather than upon individuals or social groups.

Finally, we come to the rôle of the world community in man's affairs. These articles emphasize the United Nations' rôle. The stress is upon one's duties to the community. Students personally question or disagree with these items. They believe the United States shares their private opinions. The division is essentially between Anglo-America and Asia. Soviet Russia is understood as either agreeing or disagreeing with these items.

WHAT conclusions can be drawn from this study?

First, the reactions of an educated population to an important political problem may be readily elicited. The teacher, discussion leader, or public official may arrange his program according to the results of his survey.

Second, students are in general agreement with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Third, there is a clear intolerance of doubt. The tendency to dichotomize persists. This tendency seems to be related to intellectual as well as emotional forces.

Fourth, humanitarianism is in suspicion. This suspicion has two sources: the present ideological conflicts and the semantic confusion of the Declaration.

Teaching Modern Languages to the Elementary-School Child

By H. BONGERS

FAR from being desirous of starting a discussion on the subject of teaching modern languages to elementary-school children, I should nevertheless like to offer some remarks which came to mind when I read an article by Ernest E. and Lois V. Ellert which appeared in the January issue of the EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN.¹

Let us go through the article and follow the argument. First the authors quote John Morgan, Luella Cole, Otto Klineberg, and Mario Pei, to stress the fact that "‘language is one of the fundamental facts of social life,’" that "‘speech is the most important and most universal instrument of social intercourse we have,’" and that language "‘is the indispensable vehicle of all human knowledge.’" All this is adduced, rather irrelevantly, to emphasize the statement that "‘one language is coming to be more and more insufficient for the needs of even the ordinary man.’"² "In the light of these statements," the authors ask, "what can be said against the study of language?"³

If they mean a foreign language, and specify their meaning as the *acquisition* of a foreign language, our answer must be: "Very little," even without the authority of well-known psychologists and linguists to sustain us.

Then the authors say, "The question rather seems to be a matter of what is the best age for introducing the formal study of language in the schools."⁴

Query: What is meant by *formal*, what by *study*, and what by *language*? Let us take it that the authors mean to ask: What is the best age for a child to start the acquisition of a foreign language at school? This really states the problem under discussion. The article might have used this question as its title and have done without the introduction, which, after all, with every quotation kicks at an already open door.

Next the authors state the fact that an infant is capable of using, and in fact does use, a great multiplicity of sounds, and

¹ "Teaching Modern Languages to the Elementary-School Child," XXXII (January 14, 1953), pp. 1-6, 27-28.

² Ellert, *op. cit.*, pp. 1, 2.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 2.

that many people argue from this that children ought to learn two or more languages simultaneously from infancy on. "After all," the Ellerts say, "throughout Europe, and even in America in border areas, children do grow up speaking and understanding, sometimes even writing, two or three tongues with facility."⁵

THIS statement ought to be made the subject of a lot of research before we accept it as a fact. Is it really true that a reasonable percentage of these bi- and tri-lingual children (we are discussing eight- to eleven-year-olds) speak, understand, and sometimes even write, two or three languages with facility? Children in the northern provinces of Belgium that have some patois for their mother tongue and are compelled to speak Flemish from the moment of their entrance in elementary school, and who very soon afterwards start learning French, do they really (and with facility) acquire a reasonable proficiency in these languages?

Ask Dr. H. J. deVos,⁶ inspector of secondary instruction for languages in the Flemish-speaking part of Belgium, whether he is so enthusiastic about the teaching of a second and a third language before the mother tongue has been consolidated into an adequate instrument for thought. Ask P. Post,⁷ who has made bilingualism in Indonesia and, after 1945, in Friesland (Holland) his special study, what he thinks of it. Ask educational authorities in Wales; get in touch with people who know, who are faced with the difficulties involved, and draw conclusions after wide research in the field. All over the world people are confronted with the problem, countries with great numbers of immigrants, colonial areas, and many half-developed countries where the youthful person's chances in life are dependent upon his proficiency in the language of the white business people who handle most of the trade in his country.

Solutions of the many problems attendant on these differences in language have up to now been inspired by economical and political factors and have not in any appreciable degree been made the subject of scientific research. The first earnest attempt toward pure scientific treatment of the problem was

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

⁶ Diksmuidenstraat 15, Ghent, Belgium.

⁷ Wolters Ltd., P.O. Box 58, Groningen, Holland.

made by the International Bureau of Education at Geneva. In 1928 it brought twenty educational psychologists together at Luxembourg under the leadership of Professor P. Bovet. "*Les problèmes psychologiques et pédagogiques posés par le bilinguisme*" were discussed, a report was made, and a plan for further research was drawn up.⁸ Reference was made to the systematic observations made by Jules Ronjat of his little son, who received a bilingual (French-German) education,⁹ to the studies of Michael West in India,¹⁰ and to the pioneer work done by Saer, Smith, and Hughes in Wales.¹¹

The findings tended to support the conclusion that bilingualism retards the development of the personality (especially of the intelligence and the affective life) and results in arrears at school (mainly in the mother tongue). But there were not sufficient data to formulate general and definite conclusions, especially as the findings were not in agreement with generally accepted opinions.

The discussion showed the complexity of the problem. An international committee was formed to conduct further research into the different aspects of the subject and especially to seek objective methods to determine the effects of various degrees of bilingualism. This committee met as a separate section during the Sixth International Congress of the New Education Fellowship at Nice in 1932. Some members read papers on the results of their research work,¹² but the international political situation was (and for a long time continued to be) an obstacle to large-scale scientific research in the field.

THE article goes on with a quotation from Arthur Jersild, who very rightly observes that the ways in which a child is called upon to adjust to two different languages may vary widely. But we should be very cautious about attaching any value to his (and John E. Anderson's) remark that the child

⁸ *Le Bilinguisme et l'Éducation: Travaux de la Conférence Internationale de Luxembourg*. Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1928.

⁹ Ronjat, J. *Le Développement du Langage observé chez un Enfant bilingue*. Paris: Champion, 1913.

¹⁰ West, M. *Bilingualism: with Special Reference to Bengal*. Calcutta: Bureau of Education of India, 1926 (partly summarized in *Learning to Read a Foreign Language*, London: Longmans Green, 1926).

¹¹ Saer, D. J.; Smith, F.; and Hughes, J. *The Bilingual Problem: a Study Based upon Experiments and Observations in Wales*. Aberystwyth, Wales: University College, 1924.

¹² *Full Report of the Nice Conference (or A New World in the Making: a Survey of the Work of the Nice Conference)*. London: New Education Fellowship, 1933.

may not acquire either language so well as he would have acquired a single language, but that if the two languages are considered together, he learns more language.

This is, of course, utter nonsense. When a boy has entered college, if his English is deficient it matters very little whether he has a knowledge of Spanish, French, or German which is equally deficient or much more so.

The authors proceed to quote Anderson and Mario Pei, who agree that the best way to learn languages is to learn them from birth or as close to it as possible. I beg to differ. The fact that a child of eight shows more aptitude for picking up certain elements of a foreign language than a twelve-year-old; that a six-year-old child shows greater aptitude still; and that the baby shows an ideal aptitude for learning more than one language, is no reason to set him the task of doing so.

Of course, we should distinguish between the various degrees of bilingualism we meet all over the world and the learning of a foreign language at school; but still, even though the latter is sure to have much less detrimental effects than the first, attention should be focused exclusively on the mother tongue until the child is twelve years old. I am not convinced that the proficiency in English of twenty-year-olds in the United States is such that it leaves nothing to be desired. Therefore all the time available should be used to give the school child as thorough a mastery of his mother tongue as possible before he enters high school.

A baby who is picking up his native language at the same time creates his instrument for thought, and the higher the requirements to be met by the student, the more thorough his grasp of the mother tongue should be, and the more time he should be given for the consolidation of his tools for thought.

THE authors give Mario Pei as authority for the statement that after the tenth year, ease in learning languages is lost; that thereafter, learning a language becomes a chore; that "the language will always be looked upon as something foreign"; and that, "the farther one proceeds into adulthood, the more difficult it becomes to acquire a new language, regardless of method, material, or incentive provided."¹³

I do not agree. At least, not entirely. Of course, if a lan-

¹³ Ellert, *op. cit.*, pp. 4-5.

guage is taught as a code, as a codification, to "a handful of mildly interested high-school students," the setting is not ideal and not very conducive to success. But if the language is taught (as it should be taught) as a mode of social behavior, an astonishing aptitude and keen interest will still be found in boys and girls twelve to fifteen years of age and in the older high-school and college students. The average high-school student will show sufficient interest to reach a fairly high standard of proficiency in speaking, understanding, reading, and writing the language if the teacher realizes that he is teaching a skill and not a knowledge. This calls for the sort of teaching methods which can be studied at Ann Arbor (Fries, Lado, Pike, and so on) where, incidentally, proof may be had of my contention that students taught in this way generally show keen interest and sufficient aptitude to obtain results.

That eight- to ten-year-olds love codes and secret languages is no argument for teaching them a foreign language at that age. Children's secret languages should be (and usually are) handled with great fluency and great proficiency. Their only object is that they shall be unintelligible to those outside the clan. To be efficient and to be handled with rapidity, the secret language should be easy, very easy, to learn. It should have a vocabulary that is sufficiently large to meet the requirements of the conversation held by the clan, and this calls for at least 800 to 1,000 words. These words should be acquired easily and with speed, and should be instantly intelligible to the insider.

Therefore secret languages that are satisfactory and meet the requirements of the clan derive their vocabulary from the mother tongue and are, in some way or other, modifications of it. The insertion of extra syllables serves the purpose remarkably well. I have heard children converse with great rapidity in a secret language that was absolutely unintelligible to me and yet was made up of words of my own language in their normal order. The children inserted [əp] at the beginning of every syllable:

"Have you seen my father's new car?"

or

Həpave ɣəpou sepeen məpy fəpəthəpərs nɛpəw kəpər?

My wife used to speak this language with her friends at school and I have since learnt to speak it to her, although, not

having sufficient practice, I can understand her answers only with difficulty. Many Dutch-speaking children in Holland and Indonesia can handle this language with remarkable speed. A foreign language is entirely inadequate to meet the requirements of such a secret language, because it takes too long to acquire a reasonable vocabulary, it is too difficult to handle without frequent and grave inaccuracies, and it takes much too long to acquire sufficient proficiency in speaking it.

When children start to use the foreign language they are learning, as a secret language or to impress their elders or their younger brothers and sisters, or just because they love to express themselves in the new language, you will invariably find that they will not be at a loss for words. They freely invent words of their own to make up for those they have not yet learned. They take words from the mother tongue, give them a foreign-sounding twang and go on. They do not allow their lack of vocabulary or their lack of practice in handling the foreign syntax patterns to stand in the way of their wish for rapid enunciation.

In this way the use of codes and secret languages may constitute a grave danger to the acquisition of reasonably correct Spanish, French, or other language.

THE authors further state that this is the period when many European schools start their language-training programs with great effect [1]. It is well known that once a second language is acquired, it is easier to master the third [2], and still easier to get a fourth [3]. After about three years of study in a foreign language the children in these European schools begin the second foreign tongue. As a matter of fact, in many schools of France and Germany, more time has been devoted to the study of a foreign language by the time the child is eleven than has been spent on the study of his native language [4]. This fact is well documented by statistics found in a study made by Norsworthy and Whitley.¹⁴

In the passage quoted I have numbered four points which would bear amplification and verification. *The Psychology of Childhood*, by Norsworthy and Whitley, was published in 1918, and the Ellerts do not reckon with the possibility that since 1918 people in Europe have come to their senses. When my grandfather, my father, and I were young, we started

¹⁴ Ellert, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

French when we were eight or nine years old, in the fourth year of the elementary school, but only because we attended first- and second-class (expensive) schools. Schools for the working classes (cheap or free schools) did not teach French. Now the teaching of French in primary schools has been abolished. Officially, French is no longer taught to elementary-school children. If it is taught, it is taught after school hours by teachers who are privately paid by parents who wish their children to have a smattering of French before they enter secondary school at the age of twelve. In a way, we cannot blame these parents, because many secondary-school teachers of French organize their lessons as if French were still taught in the elementary school. Children who have no knowledge of the rudiments of the language may find themselves at a considerable disadvantage on entering secondary school.

The fact that Norsworthy and Whitley state that children easily remember isolated words is not relevant. The teacher who teaches foreign-vocabulary units as isolated items deserves no place in front of a class: he, or she, is no language teacher. The time for such methods has passed. Language is not made up of words; words derive their meaning from the context in which they are used and are to be taught in situations. If you do not do that, you are not teaching language.

IN SUMMARY, it is my personal opinion, first, that the fact that a primary-school child picks up certain foreign-language elements more easily than older children is not in itself a reason to teach him a foreign language; second, that because the mother tongue constitutes the instrument for thought which the child has to use all his later life, this tool should be developed to a fairly high degree of efficiency before we permit the child to start a second language; third, that the problem of bilingualism in bi-, tri-, and polylingual countries should be considered apart from the teaching of a second language in school. Both problems should be made the subject of intensive scientific research before generally valid conclusions can be drawn.

Do Washouts Go into Teaching?

By VINCENT MCGUIRE

IN THE past there has been much discussion by students and faculty concerning the scholastic ability of students entering the field of education. In addition there has been, as is customary at any university, a difference of opinion as to which college has the most rigid marking standards. Some critics have maintained that students who fail in other colleges transfer to colleges of education and "get by" with ease.

In order to shed some light on the foregoing topics, the writer made an analysis of the scholastic record of a graduating class at one of the universities in Florida. It is obvious that no sweeping conclusions can be drawn from an analysis of the academic achievement of one graduating class. The results of such an analysis will, however, be sufficiently representative to provide a sounder basis than mere opinion for determining the academic quality of students entering the field of education, and for comparing the marking standards of the College of Education with those of other colleges.

In this university all students are enrolled during the first two years in the University College, which presents a general-education program. During the last two years students are enrolled in the colleges of the Upper Division of the university according to their major interests. The study of scholastic records reported here is limited to a period of three and a half years. The last semester of work is not included because records of marks were not available at the time this analysis was begun. The records of 45 of the 786 students in the graduating class studied were not included because more than half of their lower-division work had been done at another institution.

The problems of the study are threefold:

How do the scholastic averages of the Seniors in the College of Education compare with those of other colleges of the university?

Which college is receiving the best students (in terms of marks) from the University College?

What correlation exists between the scholastic averages earned at the University College and the scholastic averages earned by the same students in the colleges of the Upper Division?

THE point-averages of the students graduating in each college were assembled. The mean of the students' records for each college was computed for three and a half years, for the first two years in the University College, and for the first three semesters in the colleges of the Upper Division. The mean scholastic record of the Seniors during these periods, classified according to the college from which they graduated, is given in the following table:

Colleges	Scholastic Means
For three and a half years:	
Arts and Sciences.....	2.73
Education	2.61
Engineering	2.58
Forestry	2.55
Physical Education	2.54
Agriculture	2.49
Pharmacy	2.45
Business Administration.....	2.38
Architecture and Allied Arts.....	2.36
Law	2.25
For two years in University College:	
Arts and Sciences.....	2.59
Engineering	2.53
Education	2.33
Business Administration.....	2.33
Pharmacy	2.30
Law	2.26
Forestry	2.20
Physical Education.....	2.20
Agriculture	2.17
Architecture and Allied Arts.....	2.04
For a year and a half in the colleges of the Upper Division:	
Physical Education.....	2.92
Arts and Sciences.....	2.82
Forestry	2.80
Education	2.80
Agriculture	2.75
Engineering	2.74
Architecture and Allied Arts.....	2.60
Pharmacy	2.52
Business Administration.....	2.46
Law	2.18

The mean records made by these Seniors when in the University College are subtracted from their mean records when enrolled in the Upper Division, and the changes in point averages are shown in the following table:

Colleges	Changes in Point-Averages
Physical Education.....	+ .72
Forestry	+ .60
Agriculture	+ .58
Architecture and Allied Arts.....	+ .56
Education	+ .47

Colleges	Changes in Point-Averages
Arts and Sciences.....	+ .23
Pharmacy	+ .22
Engineering	+ .21
Business Administration.....	+ .13
Law	— .08

In Table I are given the correlation coefficients between the point-averages made by these Seniors when in the University College and those made by them in the three semesters in the colleges of the Upper Division. It should be remembered that correlation coefficients may be indexes of degrees of correspondence or similarity of status and not necessarily indexes of causes of such similarity. While there is probably some correlation between point-averages made in the University College and in all the colleges of the Upper Division, the small number of students in several instances—particularly Physical Education (7 students) and Architecture (12 students)—would make these coefficients of very doubtful value in predicting achievements of future students in these colleges.

TABLE I
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN POINT-AVERAGES MADE IN UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE AND POINT-AVERAGES MADE IN
UPPER-DIVISION COLLEGES

College	Number of Students	Correlation Coefficient	Standard Error of r
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Physical Education.....	7	.82	.13
Architecture and Allied Arts.....	12	.71	.15
Business Administration.....	167	.69	.04
Pharmacy	30	.68	.10
Education	85	.64	.06
Engineering	133	.64	.05
Arts and Sciences.....	128	.63	.05
Law	43	.57	.10
Forestry	27	.44	.16
Agriculture	109	.42	.08

THIS study, undertaken to ascertain the comparative academic standing of students entering educational service, shows that the scholastic averages of students in the College of Education is second for the three and a half years, third for two years in the University College, and third for three semesters in the Upper Division.

Students in the College of Arts and Sciences had the high-

est averages for the whole period and for the first two years; they ranked second for three semesters in the Upper Division. Many students in Arts and Sciences are also doing work in a professional field, and their objectives are both general and professional. These students are not included in the computation for fields of their professional interest, which include education. How this affects the comparison undertaken in this study is not known.

The largest gain in point-average between the University College and the colleges of the Upper Division was made by students in the College of Physical Education, followed by Forestry, Agriculture, and Architecture and Allied Arts. When judged in terms of gains in scholastic average, the College of Education, with a $+.47$ gain, ranked fifth.

It is significant that in every instance except one, students made higher point-averages in colleges of the Upper Division than they did in the University College.

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Conference Impressions

By ERNEST E. ELLERT

ON JANUARY 15-16, 1953, a conference on the rôle of foreign languages in American schools was held in Washington, sponsored by the United States Office of Education and attended by approximately 350 educators (public-school teachers and administrators, psychologists, college language teachers, representatives from teacher-training institutions and educational organizations), government personnel, delegates from the fields of business and industry, military men, and parents. The purpose of the conference was to consider the advisability of introducing the study of foreign languages into the elementary schools of America and the means for doing so.

Spokesmen for several American school systems which have maintained a foreign-language program at the elementary-school level for a number of years gave the history of these programs and the results that had been achieved. Following the keynote address by Commissioner Earl J. McGrath and the presentation of background material, the conferees were divided into four sections to consider in detail the problems and solutions of, first, aims and objectives of a foreign-language pro-

gram; second, curriculum; third, administration; and fourth, teacher training. The discussion of each group was completely recorded so that the members of the Conference could, if they wished, ascertain what was said in the three sections which they had not attended.

Naturally there was a good deal of overlapping in the discussion, since the problems of one group were dependent upon the solutions to the problems of the others. Taking this into consideration, however, each group attempted to enumerate the problems of its area and to suggest solutions for them. The over-all objective kept in mind by all work sections, of course, was that the introduction of foreign-language study could in time provide the child with the realization that he is a part of a world community and that his knowledge of another language and culture would do much to promote international understanding and better human relationships.

At the close of the work sessions, the participants gathered again in the auditorium of the Federal Security Agency to report their results and to come to some general agreement. Briefly these results can be summarized as follows:

All children should be given the opportunity to learn a foreign language during their elementary-school years. Most conferees thought the study of foreign languages should be introduced as early as possible, preferably no later than the third grade. The first approach should be entirely conversational, with reading and writing postponed until the later elementary-school years.

No particular language was recommended. The interests and background of a community or the availability of teachers might determine the selection of any one language. It was generally believed, however, that the language should represent a living culture, and should be of importance to America as a nation.

Any language study should be presented to children within the framework of their natural interests and activities. Language study has no value as an academic exercise for this age-group. The subject-matter presented should be integrated with the other areas of learning in which the child engages.

Regarding the length of instruction, it was believed that periods should be about fifteen minutes long in the early years, thirty minutes in the later grades. More important than the length of the instruction period, however, is the fact that instruction should be given daily.

All resources of the community should be utilized to provide the necessary instruction. Former teachers, student teachers, high-school teachers, educated foreigners in the community, all might be called upon

to teach part time. When feasible, trips to the zoo, to foreign restaurants, and so on, would provide stimulating experiences for conversation. Requisite, of course, for anyone teaching a language, are a good pronunciation and some fluency in the use of the language being taught.

Since the lack of suitable teachers seems to be a very great problem, the conference stressed the importance of having all institutions of higher learning review their own language programs, and urged greater co-operation between departments of education and foreign-language departments. Teachers' colleges, in particular, might consider offering more courses in language training, and other institutions could probably revise their programs and give greater emphasis to conversation and language laboratories. It was also concluded that there was a great need for workshops (especially during the summer at colleges, but maintained throughout the year in any locality with a foreign-language program in its school system). The suggestion was also made that more opportunities should be provided for study abroad and the exchange of teachers.

Beyond these specific recommendations and suggestions, some other aspects of the conference should be considered. First, it should be noted that although a great variety of opinions and theories were presented, an exceptional atmosphere of good will and co-operation prevailed at all the discussions and sessions. This may have been due in part to Mr. McGrath's plea in his opening address for everyone to stop shifting blame for the present unhappy state of foreign-language teaching, and for all those present to give serious consideration to the matter of trying to extend the opportunity for foreign-language study to an increasing number of young people. Everyone was urged also to bear in mind the fact that, since the United States has now assumed a position of world leadership, our citizens are in greater need than ever of a sympathetic understanding of the cultures of other peoples as expressed through their languages. Undoubtedly the best place to reach large numbers of future citizens is in the elementary schools: children of this age-group can most easily and thoroughly learn foreign languages.

Another point that needs stressing is that in every community where the language program has already been introduced in the elementary schools, although it may at first have been viewed with skepticism, even antagonism, the enthusiasm it aroused after just a few weeks was overwhelming, with parents clamoring for their children to have such instruction if they were not already receiving it, and pleased beyond measure

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The Emergency Program for the Preparation of Elementary-School Teachers

THE emergency program for the preparation of elementary-school teachers now being conducted by the five state universities of Ohio is a noteworthy example of the adaptation of educational procedures to meet an emergency. The emergency is the great shortage of elementary-school teachers from which the country is suffering. This shortage is due to a number of causes: the high birth rate during the post-war years and the failure of teachers' salaries to keep pace with the cost of living and with salaries and wages in other fields are two of the most important. The shortage has been so great that, in order to keep the schools open, the State Department of Education has issued a great many substandard certificates. Efforts to recruit students for the regular teacher-education program of Ohio institutions have had a measure of success, but have fallen far short of meeting the situation. Hence there was urgent need for a program which would do the best possible job of preparing a large number of teachers quickly.

In these circumstances, the Conference of Deans of Education of the Five State Universities developed a general plan under which college graduates could receive introductory professional training in the summer of 1953, begin teaching this fall, and complete their preparation for the standard provisional certificate in twenty-four months, including two full years of teaching. The plan was put into operation at each of the institutions during the past summer. The specific schemes of the different institutions vary somewhat; the following paragraphs describe the one at Ohio State.

A college graduate working under this plan enrolled in the College of Education for 19 quarter-hours of work during the summer quarter, 1953. During the first term, he took *Conceptions of Teaching* (Education 514), and during the second term *Child Guidance* (Education 515). He was enrolled in sections of these courses along with students in the regular four-year undergraduate curriculum in elementary education. In addition, the students in the special program enrolled in a

workshop meeting for three hours on three days a week throughout the quarter. The workshop covered content paralleling that ordinarily given in three courses: Arithmetic (Education 510), The Language Arts (Education 516), and The Social Studies (Education 517). They also did a considerable amount of observation in the University School. Persons who completed the summer's work were recommended to the State Department of Education for temporary certificates, valid for one year.

Part II of the program is to be carried on during the present school year while the student is employed as a teacher. He registers for a practicum carrying two quarter-hours of credit for each of three quarters. He will have the benefit of consultation with, and supervision by, a university supervisor and will attend a seminar to be held at intervals on the campus.

The third phase of the program will be carried on during the summer of 1954. To enter this phase, the student will be required to present evidence of satisfactory ratings in speech, hearing, general health, and competence as a beginning teacher. This summer's work will include courses in children's literature, science, art, music, physical education, and psychology. These courses will total 20 quarter-hours; some of them will be combined into a workshop. Completion of the second summer's work will qualify the teacher for a one-year renewal of the temporary certificate.

Part IV of the program will be carried on during the second year of teaching. It will consist of student teaching done as a part of the teacher's regular work and under a regular university supervisor. The teacher will register for 10 quarter-hours of student teaching during one quarter of the year. On successful completion of this phase of the program, he will be recommended for the standard provisional certificate.

TWENTY persons who seemed to have the needed breadth of undergraduate education were admitted to the program at the beginning of the summer quarter; as this was written, one had withdrawn and the remaining nineteen were continuing the work. This is a heterogeneous group with respect to previous education and work experience. Thirteen hold the Bachelor's degree from Ohio State University, and the remaining six have degrees from six other institutions. Eighteen of the degrees were conferred between 1947 and 1953; one was given in 1942.

Two students hold the Master's degree. College majors include biology, English, fine arts, geology, history, home economics, journalism, psychology, religion, rural economics, social work, Spanish, and speech. Past work experiences and present occupations also vary widely. Only one member of the group has had any experience in public school teaching.

Notwithstanding their heterogeneity, members of the group without exception are keenly interested and are working hard. Nearly all expect to complete the full two-year program.

IT is too soon to make any definite evaluation of the emergency program. Certain tentative conclusions seem to be warranted, however. The first conclusion has already been indicated: those who planned the program showed real educational statesmanship. The shortage of teachers is so great that bold and vigorous measures had to be taken if many teaching positions were not to be filled by persons whose preparation was highly inadequate. The plan now in operation did place teachers in the schools promptly and provide them much better preparation than the minimum required by the State Department of Education for temporary certification. Likewise, this plan ensures better preparation for the provisional certificate than do the minimum state requirements.

In the second place, we must remember that this is an emergency program; it must not be regarded as a substitute for the regular program. The teachers who enter the schools this fall from the new program will be much less well prepared than those who, through a four-year period, have been studying, observing, and participating in school work with a continuously higher degree of responsibility.

In the third place, there is need for a searching evaluation of the program to determine how effective it is and what suggestions it offers for the improvement of the regular program. We hazard the prediction that the new program will be effective in a high degree—that at the end of the two-year period, most of the “alumni” will be recognized as good teachers.

This prediction is based on a number of considerations. The quality of the students, as judged by those working most closely with them, is high, and their interest is keen. The workshop combining the materials of three courses on the teaching of arithmetic, language arts, and social studies was probably a good deal more effective than the separate courses would have

been. The practicum and the student teaching, both done on the job, offer almost unlimited opportunities to the supervisors to promote the professional growth of the student-teachers. The second summer of campus study, taken after a full year's experience in teaching, should be highly effective, especially if some of the courses are combined into a workshop, as is now planned. If these and other features of the program prove as effective as we believe they will, they will indeed offer important suggestions for the improvement of the regular program.

Finally, it should be noted that this program is a fine example of inter-institutional co-operation. The basic plan was worked out by the Conference of Deans. Since there is to be university supervision of the students in the field during both 1953-54 and 1954-55, and since the students from Ohio State (and presumably from the other universities) will be widely distributed over the state, the institutions will have to help each other. Kent State University, for example, no doubt will supervise Ohio State students teaching in the northeastern part of the state, and Ohio State will do the same for Kent State students in the central part. This is all to the good; the more the colleges of education help each other, the better for all.

For these reasons, we regard the new program as highly significant. We shall watch its further development with great interest. We hope later to publish articles describing and evaluating it with the thoroughness it deserves.

R. H. E.

THE October issue of *Phi Delta Kappan*, journal of Phi Delta Kappa, men's professional fraternity in education, will be devoted entirely to research. Against a backdrop of reviews of research in other fields, such as medicine, agriculture, science, business, and industry, a more detailed discussion of the rôle of research in education will be presented. The issue will contain the first major overview of educational research to be published by this magazine since 1941. The issue was prepared under the auspices of the Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Research, which devoted a year to the project.

Authors contributing to the issue include: Dan Cooper, Stephen M. Corey, F. G. Cornell, Harold Dunkel, Carter V. Good, Cyril Hoyt, Herold Hunt, Palmer O. Johnson, Roy Larsen, J. Cayce Morrison, Russell Myers, Harold Shane, Byron Shaw, L. L. Waters, and Fletcher Watson.

Books to Read

ITTELSON, WILLIAM H. "The Ames Demonstrations in Perception." Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1952. xvi+88 pp.

When a culture comes to a turning point in the values to which it gives allegiance, interest mounts in "the problem of perception." The present era is one of those turning points, and much work is now being done in the social sciences to approach the problem of perception in fresh fashion to get new insights on how man constructs his view of the world.

Adelbert Ames, Jr., of the Institute for Associated Research at Hanover, New Hampshire, has been a leading figure in capturing fresh insights in this area and in the construction of laboratory demonstrations which can be used by others in their own study of central problems in the field. Forty-nine publications have been issued in the past six years, all having their orientation in Ames's work. In the field of education, the best-known work is that of Earl C. Kelley in *Education for What Is Real*.¹

The volume by Ittelson, here under review, is a manual for use by those who would like to construct the Ames demonstrations for use in their own institutions. Twenty different demonstrations are presented. For each, there is offered a brief introductory note, a photograph or drawing of the apparatus, a brief description of the apparatus and its operations, an outline of typical observations using the apparatus, illustrated where possible, and a construction drawing of the apparatus. The detailed specifications are carefully made, though interpretation of the drawings for actual guidance in construction will require some experience in making apparatus from drawings.

In view of the fact that several scores of educational institutions are now interested in the Ames demonstrations, it is probable that this volume will see considerable use by a highly selected audience. Those of us who have attempted to use the mails to tell others how these demonstrations are to be built can only take off our hats, in respectful admiration, to the author of this volume and all those who helped in its preparation. This has been a labor of love, vitally important to basic progress in research and teaching, but involving hard and tedious work in its fulfillment. The rewards will be reaped by those who have the vision to see the basic nature of perception as a cue to human behavior and who, now, can go ahead to establish highly challenging laboratories of their own.

ROSS L. MOONEY

HARTLEY, RUTH E. *Growing through Play: Experiences of Teddy and Bud*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952. iv+62 pp.

This booklet provides a vivid description of a brief but vital three-year period in the lives of two disturbed pre-school children.

The problems of both children arise from feelings of insecurity resulting from unstable home conditions and inconsistent treatment. Two interesting factors involve the extremely different behaviors observed in the two children

¹ New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947.

in spite of the similarity in causative situations, and the approaches taken to aid the children.

Teddy is described as a child lacking interest in all objects and persons around him to such an extent that he would do nothing. Bud, on the other hand, entered into the life of the Center¹ with such unpredictable aggressive and destructive behavior that one teacher was delegated to work with him exclusively.

A plan of action for each child was devised to be carried out in an atmosphere of acceptance and freedom of expression. Teddy was consistently exposed to play materials and other children, while being allowed to make overtures with as little restriction or reprimand as possible. Bud was introduced to a large number of dolls, trains, and other dramatic play materials which permitted him to give vent to his feelings without restriction.

The description of gradual behavior changes reveals the importance of the use of play experiences for the diagnosis and treatment of the deep-seated problems of young children.

NAOMI M. ALLENBAUGH

STONE, WALTER L., AND STONE, CHARLES G. *Recreation Leadership*. New York: William-Frederick Press, 1952. vi+81 pp.

This booklet concerns itself with the increasing need for expanded and improved recreation programs because of the decrease in working hours and the increase in the number of persons in the golden age group. Emphasis is placed on the fact that such programs should develop individual dignity, self-respect, and faith, as well as encourage group participation. In this way the program would be helping to achieve the primary purpose of adding to human happiness.

Particular emphasis is directed toward statements of principles underlying good leadership, such as the thought that a recreation leader, if he is to help individuals and groups toward human happiness, must be a well-trained, well-integrated personality with a broad background and a deep interest in people.

There is some excellent information included in the booklet concerning the philosophy which is important to an effective recreation program. There are also some helpful suggestions and guide lists concerning techniques of leadership, duties of a leader, methods of discerning recreational needs of a group or community, techniques of group work, and methods of helping the volunteer worker make a satisfying contribution to the program.

There are many practical suggestions in *Recreation Leadership* which should be helpful to the reader interested in recreational work.

NAOMI M. ALLENBAUGH

HARTLEY, RUTH E.; FRANK, L. K.; AND GOLDENSON, R. M. *New Play Experiences for Children*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952. vi+66 pp.

This booklet describes the observed reactions of children in three types of play situations.

The Planned Play Group study resulted from the observation that in the spontaneous large play group the extremely aggressive child victimizes the timid child. The study showed that by arranging active and passive children

¹ The result of studies made under a two-year grant from the National Institute of Mental Health, with the Caroline Zachary Institute sponsoring the study and providing the facilities.

in a small, balanced group it was possible for both types to express themselves more freely, helping rather than harming each other.

The use of "Miniature Life Toys," such as mama and papa dolls, indicated that children can express their conflicts more clearly with structured dramatic play materials than with the less structured, such as clay and blocks.

Puppet plays offered a wide variety of opportunities for children in small groups to express themselves vigorously as they watched situations dealing with such problems as the arrival of a new baby and aggression of peers. These expressions were a release for the children and helped the observers to detect their basic problems.

The first two studies offer suggestions to teachers for studying and helping children during their play experiences, but the authors believe the puppet plays need more study before they can be used by all teachers.

NAOMI M. ALLENBAUGH

AIR UNIVERSITY, AIR COMMAND AND STAFF SCHOOL, ACADEMIC INSTRUCTOR DIVISION. *Evaluation in Air Force Instruction*. Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama: Air University, 1951. iv+63 pp.

This publication was prepared "to furnish basic material for instruction related to tests and measurements in the Academic Instructor Course [Air University]" (page ii). As one might expect, most of the text is concerned with the practical aspects of test construction, scoring, and analysis. One chapter presents a brief discussion of problems of marking.

Only two of the eight chapters, "What Evaluation Is" (Chapter I) and "Evaluation by Rating" (Chapter V), deal directly with techniques of evaluation other than testing. Chapter V, which the reviewer believes to be the best in the booklet, includes such topics as "Common Rating Errors," "Rating Methods," "Improving Ratings," and "Constructing the Rating Device."

The authors admit a lack of coverage of the field of evaluation in this sixty-page publication. Since this lack of breadth and depth is apparent, the reviewer believes that the booklet would be of most value to the novice in the field of testing. The two chapters concerned with construction of test items follow a pattern of presenting a "poor" item and then an "improved" version of the same item. The principles of good test construction are made quite clear through this procedure. In general, the entire publication is written in a clear and direct style, patterned after many of the publications prepared by branches of the Armed Forces.

ROBERT E. HUBBARD

MITCHELL, LUCY SPRAGUE. *Our Children and Our Schools*. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1950. xxviii+511 pp.

Back in 1916 this book was aborning with an organization called the Bureau of Educational Experiments. Now it is known as the Bank Street Schools, including the Nursery School, Bank Street School for Teachers, and the Division of Studies and Publications. It was in 1943 that co-operative work for curriculum revision in the New York City public schools was begun. Part II tells the story of these Bank Street workshops, and Part III pulls out the stage-by-stage learnings and implications growing out of the workshop experiences, with research and school moving together co-operatively.

Without the motivation of the underlying essentials of a good life for children and teachers, so well projected in Part I, the workshops could not

have been the successful experiences they were. A good life grows with security, with zest in the quest of interests and activities, with linkages between new and old experiences. "Life from beginning to end is a social performance" (page 425), writes Mrs. Mitchell in Part IV, as she looks into the future of "Our Children and Our Schools" with a plea for more knowledge and more faith in evolving democratic living.

Mrs. Mitchell and her colleagues sensed early in their enterprise the values of record-keeping. Thus, the firsthand materials used profusely throughout the book not only enhance the meaning for the reader but also present forceful evidence of the worth of the situational approach to curriculum improvement.

MARY JANE LOOMIS.

BARLOW, FRED. *Mental Prodigies*. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1952. 256 pp.

This book attempts at least to mention under one cover most of the better-known prodigies and to investigate prodigy behavior both from a mechanical and a psychological point of view. In its former aim it succeeds rather well, but in regard to the latter much is left to be desired. Although lip service is given to environmental influences, the author's explanatory approach ranges largely from the hereditary to the mystic. In support of his hereditary position he offers only "family tree" evidence which is not conclusive in any sense.

There is a heavy weighting on biographical data, and this seems to be the book's strongest point. Prodigies in the areas of rapid calculation, memory, music, and chess are covered, and the author closes with several chapters on hints in rapid calculation, memory, and "mental magic" drawn from his own experiences.

For the person who is interested in merely reading about prodigies and the details of some of their apparently amazing feats, the book will prove interesting. It contributes little, however, to an understanding of the "dynamics" of this kind of behavior.

SANFORD J. DEAN

SMILEY, MARJORIE B. *Intergroup Education and the American College*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. x+212 pp. (Teachers College Studies in Education).

The author's main purpose in this readable and well-documented book is to present the need, purpose, techniques, and values of a program "for the development of an integrated and comprehensive rationale in curriculum planning for intergroup education in the liberal arts college" (page 6). Intergroup education is important in a society in which there are differences in race, class, and religion.

Intergroup education covers a wide range of responsibilities. It includes not only the social climate and institutional pattern of the college but also the academic curriculum, extra-class activities, admissions, and housing. The author points out that there is a tendency among many high schools and colleges to identify intergroup education with efforts to improve relations between minority and majority groups in the United States. She states that the liberal-arts college does this, plus considering rural-urban relations, capital and labor, different socioeconomic groups, and family relations.

Implementation of intergroup education through curriculum planning in the liberal-arts college is provided by means of five approaches: required basic courses in social sciences; the requirement that students learn about another culture; students' participation in co-operative group activities; personal or academic counseling; and incorporation of courses, personnel policies, extra-curricular activities, skills, and activities necessary to intergroup education.

The alert reader of this book will realize that the author has emphasized the rôle of the liberal-arts college in intergroup education to the exclusion of any other type of college. Does not the teachers' college have many of these same purposes and values as an integral part of its program? Certainly the teachers' college is equally concerned with "creating the democratic personality," "educating for social leadership," and "encouraging group deliberation and decision." The liberal-arts college may have a distinctive rôle in intergroup education, but so has the teachers' college. The author seems to have made an unwarranted assumption in this respect.

COLLINS W. BURNETT

KELLEY, EARL C. *The Workshop Way of Learning*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951. xvi+169 pp.

STAPLEY, MAURICE E. *The Story of a Workshop*. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1952. 47 pp. (Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXVII, No. 1.)

In practice the workshop takes various forms. In whatever pattern it is found, it has become a standard instrument for use in programs of educational improvement. An essential to deriving value from the workshop is a human climate in which participants are free to work at their own problems with the help of others, and an atmosphere in which "people can let their hair down," throw off their pretenses, and behave like human beings. Two salient features of the workshop are the emphasis on problem-solving and the attention given to human relations.

The two accounts come from different settings. The first deals with a university course organized along workshop lines for teachers who come weekly from the field to the center. The second describes, strictly speaking, a short work conference in which the principal participants are school-board members and superintendents. The content of the first is analytical of the purposes and principles of the workshop concept and deals quite thoroughly with procedures. A reading of it gives a deeper understanding of the workshop enterprise and a sense that more study and evaluation of its basic concepts and methodology are needed. The second account carries the reader along at the descriptive level and leaves him with an impression of the importance of the purpose of the particular workshop described and the relatively unmet need for lay and professional people to participate co-operatively in a discussion situation. It is product-centered while the first book is process-oriented.

Kelley and his associates state six principles which have guided them, and which have been clarified over more than a decade of effort. They state nine purposes which have made their work meaningful. This reviewer likes the penetrating thought behind the statements. For example, this formulation: "The most important thing about any person is his attitude toward other people" (page 4). The purposes are stated in terms of clean requirements that

the staff places against the workshop situation, such as "We want to put teachers in situations that will break down the barriers between them so that they can more readily communicate" (page 7). Four chapters are devoted to procedures. These have to do with starting a workshop so as to set a direction and to correct false expectations that participants may have brought with them. The formation and operation of the interest group are dealt with in terms of procedures. The resources of a workshop enterprise are discussed also as strategically procedural elements in its development. General sessions are considered as an integral part of an ongoing movement for continuously orienting the participant and for making available to him the thinking of co-participants. A basic problem of releasing barriers between learners is discussed at the level of practical procedures.

An attractive feature of the book is the fact that it uses a case method to give an impression of reality. This is illustrated by the chapter on evaluation. The reader is informed of techniques that have been employed for evaluating practice, and the results of applying these techniques with participants. Materials, principally of anecdotal character, indicate the achievements. But the author is not complacent; he analyzes unsolved problems of workshop planning and management. The concluding chapter takes the very interesting form of a recorded conversation between four people who have read the foregoing chapters and are familiar with the Wayne University Workshop and similar enterprises at other institutions.

Although of a different character, the Indiana Workshop report gives the reader an idea of the questions and conclusions school-board members and superintendents are interested in pursuing when they share a workshop experience. An evaluation procedure was used in connection with this enterprise, and the reader will find the results interesting. The reviewer's impression is that this type of workshop should become much more frequent because it offers to the educational profession an instrument for solving some of the critical public-relations problems that confront schools today. Each report in its own way makes a contribution to the relatively scant literature on the educational workshop.

MAX R. GOODSON

HAMMER, JANE ROSS, editor. *Logic for Living: Dialogues from the Classroom of Henry Horace Williams*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951. xxii+281 pp.

This volume is not a textbook in the usual sense. The preface tells us that logic to Henry Horace Williams meant applied logic as distinct from formal logic. Thinking was to him always relevant to concrete situations, not to abstract words or symbols. The book is a record, even from class notes, of the classroom procedures of Mr. Williams. There is no question that his influence meant a great deal to a number of people now notable in the fields of philosophy, education, public life, and business, as he talked about "What Thinking Is" (unifying), "What Man Thinks About" (nature, history, God), "How He Thinks" (by way of quality, individuality, finitude, quantity, number, relation, and so on), and "His Achievements" (institutions, law, religion, standards, spirit, dialectic, and truth).

Since logic as a technique can be applied to all situations in experience, it is difficult to determine exactly what logic is from its content rather than

its formal principles. And without a sense of formal principles it is difficult to say what it is that is being applied to various situations. The student must gradually sense what it is without directly facing it; it comes through the back door of experience. One wonders whether this method ever gives a student a clear conception of what he is doing. Is it not empirical in the sense in which there has been empirical medicine?

All the material is worth while, interesting, and stimulating. But the reader wonders to the end whether thinking is anything more than agitation of the mind. It leaves open to the close whether there are any principles of thought, valid for all and enduring to the end of time. If there are, what are they? If not, how can there be any real organization of experience?

ALBERT E. AVEY

BONPENSIERE, LUIGI. *New Pathways to Piano Technique*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1953. xxi+128 pp.

The method of acquiring piano technique set forth in this book is by no means a short cut to mastering the instrument, in spite of the author's constant reference to effortless playing. Rather, he demands of the artist a deep consecrated concentration. For teachers and advanced students, the book will have appeal, but for the average student who takes the study of piano as only a pleasant pastime, the approach is perhaps too profound. It would be wonderful if all students felt as keenly about the joys of artistic playing as Mr. Bonpensiere, and his attitude certainly represents a desirable one for all to attain who play the piano or any musical instrument.

LELA HARDY

1 1 1

Education and Universal Human Rights

[Continued from page 143]

Fifth, the ideological divisions are at least twofold: that between Soviet Russia and Anglo-America, and that between Europe and Asia.

Sixth, the opinions of this sample of students approximate very closely the Anglo-American resolution presented to the United Nations General Assembly in 1952, whereby the Declaration was divided into two parts. On a very close vote, which split Anglo-America from Asia, "the General Assembly . . . requests the Economic and Social Council to ask the Commission on Human Rights to draft two Covenants on Human Rights . . . one to contain civil and political rights and the other to contain economic, social and cultural rights . . ."

Seventh, the Declaration may be categorized according to the students' personal choices and the rôles which they assign various nations with regard to each item in the Declaration. The least acceptable articles are those which emphasize the importance of the world community. The most acceptable articles stress individual rights and freedoms.

Is there no relation between these categories? Are not individual rights and freedoms exercised in responsible behavior to the world community? The development of a democratic world community necessitates our understanding that our individual freedom is inherent in the responsibility we demonstrate in upholding the rights of others. Thus we continually build a world community which harmonizes independence and responsibility. The results of this study indicate that educational programs on human rights must focus upon this as the major issue.

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Conference Impressions

[Continued from page 156]

with what the children were learning when they did have it. No matter which language was being taught, the parents seemed to feel that the child's whole interest in school and its activities had been greatly increased through his language study, and this applied to the slow learner as well as to the gifted child.

Finally, it must be admitted that not all of the solutions and recommendations offered concerning existing problems will fit every community; but all the participants at the conference believed that if any community really wanted to incorporate a language program in its school system, it could find the solution to its own particular problems by calling a meeting of those most interested (members of the school board, teachers from various educational institutions in the community, P.T.A. representatives, and persons from industrial and business groups). It was recommended that the United States Office of Education make available to interested local groups, film strips and other material giving the background and results of language programs already in operation. If the same spirit of genuine co-operation prevails at these community meetings as was shown at the national conference, no obstacle to initiating and maintaining a dynamic foreign-language program at the elementary-school level should be too great to be surmounted.

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OCTOBER 14, 1953

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The Employment Status of a Group of Home-Economics Alumnae

By RUTH T. LEHMAN

IN 1951 A study was made of the alumnae of Ohio State University who had received the Bachelor's degree in home economics during the first fifty years in which the University granted this degree. Some of the questions which the alumnae answered were concerned with employment. The areas to be explored in the section of the report discussed in this paper are:

How many of the home-economics graduates are employed?

How does this number compare with the national figures on employment of women?

At what stage in life did the alumnae start to work?

What kinds of positions do they hold?

What is characteristic of those who are employed?

How active are they—even though working—in the affairs of the community?

From 1900 to 1950, inclusive, 3,488 home-economics women had received one or more degrees from the University. Of these, 3,259 living alumnae for whom there were addresses were reached by questionnaire early in 1951. Seventy per cent (2,284) responded: 124 of these alumnae held only an advanced degree from Ohio State University; 2,160 had received the Bachelor's degree, and their answers are summarized in this report.¹

Most of these alumnae (92 per cent) reported that they had been at some time gainfully employed, the greater number of them starting to work before they had been out of college

¹ The study was directed by Gladys Branegan, director of the School of Home Economics. Two other phases of the investigation will be reported by the writer: "The Married Home-Economics Graduate, 1900-1950," in *Marriage and Family Living* (the date of appearance has not been determined); and "The Home-Economics Graduate in the Community," in the *Journal of Home Economics*, December, 1953.

two years. Yet only 40 per cent were working at the time that they returned the questionnaire. This was clearly due to a change in marital status. Practically all of the 407 single women (90 per cent), for example, were working, most of them full time. Incidentally, this was considerably higher than the national figure of 73 per cent calculated as of March, 1950, for single women twenty years of age or older.² Doubtless the difference may be explained largely by the fact that the alumnae were prepared to enter a profession—and in fields in which the supply of trained persons has for some time not met the demand.

Among the 1,753 alumnae who were or had been married, about one in four (28 per cent) was employed, or about the same proportion as was found in the national labor force. Interestingly enough also, the trend among married alumnae was toward full-time employment. Three out of four of the employed homemakers were carrying a full-time load in addition to their homemaking responsibilities. This situation may be partly due to the high proportion who were teachers. Since the mid-1940's school boards have increasingly employed married home economists; but they have kept to the pattern of the full-time teacher, instead of experimenting with a plan of using two qualified homemakers, each of whom are giving half time to the school.

Most of the single alumnae who were working (87 per cent) were in a field related to their home-economics training. This was true also of a high proportion of the employed married women (75 per cent); yet one in four—doubtless because of having to seek employment wherever she might be living—was engaged in work for which her undergraduate program had not prepared her. Interestingly enough, among both married and single alumnae, teaching was the commonest occupation. Almost half of each group were so employed. However, this figure is partly explained by the fact that about the same proportion of all respondents had been graduated from the teacher-education curriculum of the School of Home Economics.

² Bureau of the Census. "Marital and Family Characteristics of the Labor Force in the United States: March, 1950," *Current Population Reports, Labor Force*, P-50, No. 29 (May 2, 1951), Table 3, p. 7. This table gives data by age groups for women fourteen years of age and older. Thus it was possible to calculate for the present survey the number twenty years of age and over, a group more comparable to the alumnae studied.

TABLE I
OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF SINGLE AND MARRIED ALUMNAE IN RELATION TO THEIR
UNDERGRADUATE CURRICULUM IN HOME ECONOMICS

CURRICULUM	SINGLE ALUMNAE							MARRIED ALUMNAE				
	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Extension or Adult Classes												
Home Economist in Business												
Teacher												
Dietitian or Nutritionist												
Other Occupation												
Combination of Several												
(1)												
Child Development												
Clothing and Textiles												
General Home Economics												
Home Furnishing*												
Household Equipment												
Hospital Dietetics												
Institution Management												
Restaurant Management*												
Nutrition and Foods												
Teaching												
Total												

* These curriculums each furnished fewer than 10 of the respondents, so percentages mean little.

HENCE a more significant picture is given when the occupational distribution of those graduating in the various programs of the School is examined (*see* Table I). Then it becomes apparent that the teachers—probably because as a group they represented teaching at nursery-school, secondary-school, and college levels—have come from a variety of undergraduate curriculums. Among single women for example, 70 per cent of those completing the Education curriculum were teaching; and another 14 per cent were working with extension or other adult classes; in other words, teaching out-of-school groups. But these were not the only ones in the educational field. Two-thirds of those graduating in Child Development were teaching, as were half of those in the general program, a discontinued non-professional curriculum. Around 10 per cent of the graduates in the various dietetics programs and in Textiles and Clothing also were teaching, some of them in college and some in secondary schools.

In both these latter areas, however, teaching definitely took second place. As might be expected, those in the former program were largely nutritionists and dietitians. Those who had majored in Clothing tended either to serve as home economists for various business organizations or to go into unspecified fields not connected with extension, teaching, or nutrition. Graduates who had majored in Household Equipment definitely went into the business field. The placement of the married alumnae followed much the same pattern. The major exception was in Child Development. More than half of those in this program—one of the newer curriculums of specialization—were working in other fields.

AMONG the factors which seemed to influence employment rate and status were: age, size of home community, the husband's occupational level, number and age of children. Table II shows the rate by year of graduation. Single women were found to be working at all ages. Even those who had been graduated more than thirty years previously were generally employed. The situation with married women, however, evidently varied with family status, and hence with age. The graduates showing the highest employment rate were those of the five years immediately preceding the study and those of twenty to thirty years earlier. In each case at least a third of the

TABLE II
PERCENTAGE OF ALUMNAE EMPLOYED BY YEAR OF GRADUATION

YEAR OF GRADUATION	SINGLE ALUMNAE			MARRIED ALUMNAE		
	Part Time	Full Time	Both	Part Time	Full Time	Both
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1945-46-1949-50	5.5	89.0	94.5	4.6	33.2	37.8
1940-41-1944-45		100.0	100.0	5.2	15.5	20.7
1935-36-1939-40	7.4	85.2	92.6	5.2	16.3	21.4
1930-31-1934-35	2.1	87.2	89.4	5.3	18.9	24.2
1925-26-1929-30	6.4	80.9	87.2	12.9	21.1	34.0
1920-21-1924-25	6.7	84.4	91.1	8.5	28.0	36.5
Before 1920-21	4.8	69.4	74.2	6.4	19.7	26.1
Total	4.7	85.5	90.1	6.4	21.6	28.0

TABLE III
PERCENTAGE OF ALUMNAE EMPLOYED IN
RELATION TO SIZE OF HOME COMMUNITY

Size of Home Community	Single Alumnae	Married Alumnae
(1)	(2)	(3)
Farm	75.0	22.3
Under 2,500	90.2	28.4
2,500-24,999	89.5	22.8
25,000-99,999	92.8	32.9
100,000-1,499,999	89.5	30.9
1,500,000 and above	97.6	24.1

married women reporting from these classes were employed. The early years of marriage before the children began to arrive and the later years when the children had grown up were, logically enough, the times of highest employment.

FROM Table III it is evident that the rate of employment varied somewhat also with size of home community. Among married women it was highest in the middle-sized and large cities, where opportunities were greatest: about a third of these women were working. Single alumnae as a rule were employed, no matter where their homes might be. They were generally free to go where work was available. Variation from this pattern was found only for those whose home was on the farm. Twenty-five per cent of these women were not employed outside the home.

Among the most interesting findings to a social scientist is the relationship of married women's employment to the husband's occupational level and to the presence of children. There was some evidence that socioeconomic status influenced the employment rate. Around half of all women whose husbands were in school, in military service, or in semi-skilled occupations—although the number involved here was small—were working. A third of those in clerical and kindred fields or in skilled trades also were employed. Only about a fifth of the wives of professional men, of men in the proprietor-manager-official class, and of farmers were working.

TABLE IV
PERCENTAGE OF MARRIED ALUMNAE EMPLOYED, CLASSIFIED
ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF CHILDREN

NUMBER OF CHILDREN	PER CENT WORKING	PER CENT OF WORKING GROUP	
		Part Time	Full Time
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
0	57.8	10.6	89.4
1	24.2	26.6	73.3
2	17.2	39.8	60.2
3	15.4	41.0	59.0
4	12.8	45.4	54.6
5*	15.4	50.0	50.0
6 or more*	10.0	100.0

* Less than five persons who were working reported this number of children.

There was much evidence, too, that the presence of children was an influencing factor. More than half of those who had no children were employed (58 per cent), and most of these at full-time work (*see* Table IV). This figure was much higher than for the country as a whole, where only about a third of this classification were working.³ The two groups were similar, however, in the proportion of those with children who were employed, only one in five falling in this class. Understandably enough, family size also definitely influenced the employment rate. A fourth of those with one child were working; only about one-sixth of those with more children. And not only were the latter less likely to be employed; they tended also to have more part-time workers in their numbers.

³ Bureau of Census, *op. cit.*, calculated from Table 4, p. 8.

Such findings strongly suggest that the children's age must have been a factor in their mother's decision to work. Undoubtedly this was true. Table V shows that only one in ten of those whose youngest child was below school age was employed; about one in three, when the youngest was either in the grades or in high school. And as has already been implied, fewer of those with pre-school children were working full-time. It is evident that in general the children's welfare took precedence over whatever professional ambitions their mothers may have had.

And what of the community activities of employed alumnae, married or single? As such participation was reflected in organization memberships, work made little difference in the case of the single women. Employed married alumnae, on the

TABLE V
PERCENTAGE OF MARRIED ALUMNAE EMPLOYED CLASSIFIED
ACCORDING TO THE AGE OF THE YOUNGEST CHILD

AGE OF YOUNGEST CHILD	PER CENT OF MOTHERS WORKING	PER CENT OF WORKING GROUP	
		Part Time	Full Time
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Pre-school	10.1	49.4	50.6
Elementary school	29.4	34.4	65.6
High school	31.3	24.5	75.5

other hand, belonged on the average to twice as many organized groups as their unemployed sisters. Probably this may be at least partly explained by the fact that so many of them were in teaching, where certain professional affiliations have come to be accepted as a requirement for everyone. Membership, however, did not always reflect activity. But perhaps it was the most that could be expected of many who had added the demands of a job to their already busy life as homemakers. At any rate, it was the wife who was not employed who was giving almost half of her participation in community affairs to leadership, through service as committee member or as officer.

Practically all women in this study had at some time been employed. At the time of filling in the questionnaire, most single alumnae and one in four of the married women were working. Moreover, the general trend was toward full-time

service and toward work in a job related to home economics. Teaching was the outstanding occupation, but a significant proportion of women workers were dietitians, nutritionists, or home economists in business.

Single women were working at all ages and, in general, with no evident relationship to their home community. Married alumnae were most likely to be employed if they lived in middle-sized or large cities and were either in the early years of marriage when they had no children or in the later years when their youngest child was in the grades or high school. Also, they more commonly worked if their husbands' salaries were not in the higher brackets. Employment tended to increase their membership in organizations but to lessen their leadership activity in the community. In the case of single women, however, employment seemed to make little difference in respect to membership or leadership activity.

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THE data reported by Leonard J. West in his monograph, *College and the Years After*, may well provide suggestions for the improvement of both graduate and undergraduate programs in institutions of higher education which are not located in New York City. This report of an extensive survey has the subtitle, "A Career Study of Municipal College Graduates," and it is published by the Board of Education.

The great majority of graduates of the four municipal colleges of New York City in the classes of June, 1941, and June, 1947, enjoy the work they are doing, according to this survey, based on 3,201 responses from a total of 5,865 men and women. The work of these graduates is spread over more than two hundred different occupations, business leading for the men, and business and teaching tying for first place among the women. More than half the women from the class of 1941 are housewives. Unemployment is rare. Over half the men and more than two-fifths of the women do graduate work, principally for vocational advancement.

In their estimates of college, the graduates in general advocate a balance between liberal and vocational training. They stress the need of better guidance methods in helping undergraduates to plan careers.

Boyd Henry Bode in Egypt

By SADEK H. SAMAAAN

ON THE twenty-ninth of March, 1953, one of the foremost thinkers in the field of philosophy of education terminated a life marked by productive scholarship, effective leadership, and far-reaching influence. The man was Boyd Henry Bode.

In his lifetime, Mr. Bode was formally honored on different occasions and by many people in acknowledgment of his deep and varied contributions to the philosophy of education. But only a few will know how his influence reached beyond the borders of his own country. The present writer had the privilege of being among his students when, in 1944-45, he came as visiting professor to the Graduate Institute of Cairo. It is difficult to say specifically why all of us in his classes came to feel as enthusiastically as we did about Mr. Bode, for it was the "whole" man, rather than any particular trait or traits, that impressed us. His philosophic position and scholarly competence, his wide range of perspective together with his unusual ability to penetrate into deeper levels and concentrate his discussions on the more crucial and strategic areas of human experience, his vision of where and how the ideas raised should and could enter the life stream of human beings, his profound simplicity and lucidity of expression—which were naturally appreciated by students to whom English was a foreign language—his ready wit and subtle sense of humor (for which the Egyptians, in general, have a particular liking), his mental vigor and toughness combined with an unaffected modesty, his constant exemplification of his faith in the worth and dignity of the individuals with whom he was dealing, his missionary-like devotion to the cause of freedom and the liberation of human potentialities—these were some of the sources of his fascination. No one, it seems, who studied under Bode could forget how the classroom situation in his hands became a typically human situation where democracy operated at its best.

EDITOR'S NOTE:

Through a misunderstanding this article was accepted and set in type before we learned that it was to appear in *School and Society* for September 19 (Vol. 78, pp. 87-89).

Although we have the policy of not using papers which have appeared elsewhere, we have waived the practice in this instance because many readers of the EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN had been students and friends of Mr. Bode.

Nor could he possibly forget Bode's unique way of getting across to his students the feeling that they were engaged in a profitable intellectual enterprise, and communicating to them the notion that the intellectual quest is a rewarding one. Amazing, indeed, was his ability to challenge his students' thought, their basic orientation, their dogmatisms and authoritarianisms, to compel them to sense the inadequacies of some of their approaches to human situations and, above all, to encourage them to reach beyond the stage at which their intelligence might have been satisfied had it not been for him. He sincerely believed what he once wrote, that "the power to think is the educational kingdom of heaven; if we seek it persistently, other things will be added unto us."¹

THERE is yet another reason why Bode achieved a notable influence among those with whom he came in contact in Egypt—colleagues and students. This pertains to the present-day predicament of Egyptian culture, to which Bode's philosophic approach has peculiar significance. Egypt, like most countries of the world, is undergoing a period of rapid transition. Pronounced changes have been taking place in the intellectual, economic, political, and moral aspects of Egyptian life. As a corollary of these changes there has been an increasing amount of confusion and conflict in values and interests. Particularly during and after the Second World War, political, economic, moral, and ideological differences have been noticeably sharpened. The youth with whom Bode was dealing were inevitably caught up in this dilemma. While Bode never assumed that he knew enough about Egyptian life and culture to be an authority on the subject, he nevertheless was quite sensitive to, and informed about, the general nature of the problem. He did not claim to have the final answer to any problem, but he had an approach, a perspective, a vision.

For him, old values and traditions must be preserved and transmitted; but they must be kept flexible. They must be subjected to critical examination and scrutiny, and reassessed in the light of emerging conditions. Institutions, which are the embodiment of values, must be viewed as instrumental rather than final or sacred, and, as such, they must be subject to modi-

¹ *Conflicting Psychologies of Learning*. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1929. p. 274.

fication and reinterpretation when the need for this arises. According to Bode, the way to reconstruct outlooks and basic norms of conduct, to solve problems and resolve differences and confusion, is through the extension and application of the method of experimental inquiry to the whole range of human deliberation. As a sincere advocate of the Dewey position, he believed in the centrality of the scientific method, and that democracy and the method of experimental science are organically related. He believed, therefore, that the educational enterprise must be viewed in this light. That is, it must be democratic and scientific in character. It should play a major rôle in institutionalizing and humanizing this method of intelligence.

There were those in his classroom who basically disagreed with Bode; others—including the writer—basically agreed but differed on some minor points. The difference did not disturb Mr. Bode in the least; rather it stimulated him. He respected those who differed with him, and was willing—at times—to concede points of strength in their arguments. His primary aim, it seemed, was not to destroy but to build, and he was a master builder. He was concerned with bringing to focus points of common agreement among the participants which sometimes the heat of discussion tended to obscure.

THIS brings us to another basic quality about the man which appealed to all of us. In or outside his classes he must have seen the strengths and weaknesses of the culture. But, unlike interested reporters or biased propagandists, he never magnified the negative at the expense of the positive. Not that he accepted all that he found, for he constantly pointed to the necessity of improvement and change. On the other hand, he was impressed by many positive things—trends and achievements. He saw, for example, a large group of youth who were extremely interested in and sensitive to the problems of their country, whose intellectual horizon is not so narrow as some Western newspaper correspondents would wish the world to believe. He found an educational system which, for all its shortcomings, is becoming more and more democratic; a people whose faith in education is on the increase; in short, a country striving hard for its own upbuilding. Bode saw these and other potentialities for growth and voiced his optimism in private

and in public. His hope, one is sure, did not spring out of flattery but rather out of conviction.

This, in brief, is the writer's impression of the Boyd H. Bode whom he knew in Egypt, the man who created what was almost a revolution in the way of thinking of more than a few persons. He launched a school of thought which since 1945 has been progressively enlarging and which is now exerting a profound influence on educational thought and practice throughout the country. Some of his former students are now holding key positions and are engaged in translating and adapting the orientation he gave them within the Egyptian educational situation. They—like many of Mr. Bode's colleagues, friends, and admirers—cherish his memory. [Vol. XXXII, No. 7]

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IF Arthur Toynbee is right in believing that the twentieth century "will be chiefly remembered not as an age of political conflict or technical inventions, but as an age in which human society dared to think of the welfare of the whole human race as a practical objective," then one of the responsibilities of the university is to spread technical knowledge for the benefit of all the peoples of the world.

With this argument, Don G. Williams begins his discussion of *Communication of Technical Information in the Undeveloped Areas of the World*. The attractive booklet bearing this title contains the text of the J. Richard Street Lecture given at Syracuse University in 1953.

Mr. Williams, who is an audio-visual expert at Syracuse University, believes that in the limited time we have to reach a mass audience "our best single communications device is the sound motion picture" (page 15). Reliance on the printed word is misplaced because in undeveloped countries the rate of illiteracy is high, and the small percentages of people who read are not the ones we need to reach. The film record "of a pilot project can be viewed by thousands," whereas "only hundreds could view [the project] in person" (page 15).

The writer counters the objection that it would be too costly to carry out such a program with the argument that "the American Public is paying the highest price in history to make it possible for its sons and daughters to forget more than has ever been forgotten before" (page 21).

Competencies Needed by Core Teachers

By JAMES L. WATTENBARGER

TEACHERS who work with young people in the classroom organization of core curriculum need many of the same competencies usually required of any teacher. Additional skills which may be needed are perhaps the ones which should make a difference in the pre-service education of such teachers. The writers who have described core programs in operation give keys to the importance they place upon certain skills and abilities required of core teachers. These educators who are developing the core program in various parts of the country reveal their belief that certain competencies are important by the emphasis they give to them in their descriptions.

To evaluate these competencies in terms of the needs of teachers of core classes in Florida is the purpose of this study. A list of forty-eight competencies was prepared through an analysis of the descriptions of the work of core teachers presented in the following writings:

ALBERTY, HAROLD, AND OTHERS. "Preparing Core Teachers for the Secondary Schools." Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1949.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Toward Better Teaching*. 1949 Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1949.

MUDD, DOROTHY. *A Core Program Grows*. Bel Air, Maryland: Board of Education of Harford County, 1949.

OVSIEW, LEON, AND OTHERS. *Making the Core Work*. New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1951.

NOAR, GERTRUDE. *Freedom to Live and Learn*. Philadelphia: Franklin Publishing and Supply Company, 1948.

A similar list possibly could be prepared from other descriptions of core programs. This list was divided into such general headings as: Competencies in Pre-service Education, Competencies in the Classroom, and Competencies as a Member of a Faculty Group. This list was then sent to teachers of core curriculum in the Florida public schools who were selected simply on the basis of their designation as core teachers by their county administrations. The returns discussed in this study represent approximately one-half of those so designated.

The teachers were asked to indicate their opinion of the degree of importance of these competencies on a 3-point scale: 1 means the competency is imperative for a teacher of core curriculum; 2, the competency is useful and desirable for a teacher of core curriculum; and 3, the competency is unnecessary for a teacher of core curriculum. All except two of the competencies on this list were marked as either imperative or useful for teachers of core curriculum by 90 per cent or more of the teachers answering.

The two competencies considered unimportant were in the areas of scholarship and evaluation. Fourteen per cent of the teachers indicated that they thought it unnecessary for the core teachers to have considerable concentration in one or more major subject areas, and 15 per cent indicated that a core teacher could function efficiently without the ability to use diagnostic tests effectively.

At the other extreme, only two competencies were classed as imperative by 90 per cent or more of the teachers. Ninety-six per cent considered it imperative for a core teacher to have an understanding of the needs, interests, and abilities of teen-age boys and girls. Ninety-four per cent thought it imperative for a core teacher to have the ability to guide a group in planning, developing, and carrying out a unit of work.

The degree of importance of the other competencies ranges between these extremes, as is indicated by the following tabulation. The competency list is arranged in rank order of importance as indicated by the percentages of teachers who marked the competency as imperative. Items that received identical distributions of the percentages are given the same rank:

RANK	COMPETENCY	PERCENTAGE ANSWERING			
		Im- perative	Use- ful	Unneces- sary	No Answer
1	Understanding of needs, interests, and abilities of teen-age boys and girls	96	0	2	2
2	Ability to guide a group in planning, developing, and carrying out a unit of work . .	94	2	2	2
3	Ability to work both as a member of a group and as a leader in a group	88	6	4	2
5	Understanding of the physical and mental growth patterns of teen-age boys and girls . .	86	10	2	2
5	Ability to use the classroom environment to the advantage of the learning process	86	10	2	2
5	Ability to help children evaluate their own work	86	10	2	2
7	Ability to use the needs, interests, and abilities of all pupils in the total classroom				

RANK	COMPETENCY	PERCENTAGE ANSWERING			
		Im- perative	Use- ful	Unneces- sary	No Answer
	situation	86	8	4	2
8	Ability to plan co-operatively with pupils..	85	11	2	2
9.5	Ability to keep planning flexible.	81	15	2	2
9.5	Ability to improve the classroom, no matter what facilities are available, so that it will develop into a real workroom for youth. . . .	81	15	2	2
11	Knowledge of the basic tool abilities and skills which are applicable to the classroom..	79	17	2	2
12	Knowledge and understanding of the various techniques useful in helping children to learn	77	19	2	2
13	Ability to develop skill in thinking.	77	15	2	6
14.5	Ability to provide and to use a variety of teaching materials	75	21	2	2
14.5	Ability to find and to draw conclusions from many and varied sources of information about pupils in the classroom.	75	21	2	2
16	Ability to handle controversial issues in a normal classroom situation.	75	19	4	2
17.5	Understanding of the relationships between present-day events and the activities of the classroom	73	23	2	2
17.5	Ability to use many sources of information for the purpose of evaluation.	73	23	2	2
19	Knowledge of how to fit several areas into a well-developed unit of work.	71	25	2	2
20	Knowledge of ways to include material from many areas of knowledge in pre-planning for classroom units.	71	23	2	4
21	Ability to develop skill in the use of lan- guage arts	71	23	4	2
22	Ability to develop resource units.	71	21	2	6
23	Ability to collect and to co-ordinate infor- mation useful in the guidance of youth. . . .	69	29	0	2
24	Ability to locate the many resources perti- nent to classroom work in progress.	69	27	2	2
25	Ability to work with other teachers in planning curriculum experiences.	67	27	2	4
26	Understanding of the relationships between the school and the community.	65	31	2	2
27	Ability to explain the program of the core and of the school to other teachers, to parents, and to others interested.	65	29	4	2
28	Understanding of the guidance relationships between the core and other subject areas. . .	65	27	4	4
29	Ability to interview and counsel students. .	64	31	2	2
30	Understanding of what are appropriate ways and means and times for the development of skills required for the work under way. . . .	63	31	2	4

PERCENTAGE ANSWERING

RANK	COMPETENCY	PERCENTAGE ANSWERING			
		Im- perative	Use- ful	Unneces- sary	No Answer
31	Ability to work with other core teachers in planning the core-curriculum experiences for all grade-levels.....	63	29	2	6
32	Ability to use various techniques to gather information about pupils in the classroom..	58	38	2	2
33	Ability to work with other teachers in planning the program of the school.....	54	40	2	4
34	Knowledge of and experience with the many and varied resources of a community.....	50	46	2	2
36	Familiarity with the cultural heritage.....	48	48	2	2
36	Ability to secure co-operation of parents and other community groups.....	48	48	2	2
36	Ability to prepare and keep records for instructional purposes	48	48	2	2
38	Demonstrable ability in all of the major subject areas	46	48	4	2
39	Ability to co-ordinate all the guidance functions of the school and community for the benefit of the pupils.....	40	56	2	2
40	Considerable concentration in one or more major subject areas.....	40	44	14	2
41.5	Ability to develop and keep unit reports on all classroom work.....	38	56	4	2
41.5	Ability to plan co-operatively with the members of a community.....	38	56	4	2
43	An understanding of ways to relate extra-class activities to classroom work.....	36	58	4	2
44	Ability to work with youth in extra-class activities	33	61	4	2
45	Ability to use diagnostic tests effectively..	29	54	15	2
46	Ability to keep logs, diaries, and anecdotal records	21	71	4	4
47	Familiarity with many types of standardized evaluation instruments.....	21	69	8	2

IF THE competencies which fall below the 34th rank (that is, the ones which are marked as imperative by fewer than 50 per cent of the teachers) are examined, it appears that those which emphasize the teacher's scholarship, his record-keeping, and his working relationship with all groups outside the classroom are looked upon as least important. All three of the competencies listed in the original questionnaire under the heading of scholarship fall in this group. Those which involve emphasis on time spent in working with parents and community groups, and with students in extra-class activities, are also found within this category. In addition, it is interesting to note that

competencies which require knowledge of standardized evaluation instruments are also found in this low group. It may well be that these are competencies which are not emphasized in most pre-service education programs and are, therefore, not used by teachers to the fullest extent in their own classroom situations.

On the other hand, those competencies which require understanding of children and skill in human relationships are marked high by these teachers. More than 80 per cent rated as imperative the first ten competencies, including the 9.5 in rank order. These include competencies which are important in any classroom situation but are especially important for classes which are organized as the core curriculum. Such competencies as understanding boys and girls and being able to develop a good classroom situation are emphasized by these teachers.

The teachers in the field have stressed those areas which seem most important to them in their daily work. They have placed less importance upon others which seem to be remote from their daily contacts. The relative importance given these items by teachers working in the classroom seems to differ from that assigned them by teacher-education institutions. This probably means that teacher-education institutions need to widen the horizons of their prospective teachers as well as give more emphasis to the development of those competencies which stress daily work with children.

Some other implications of this rating might be listed for those who are interested in developing competencies for teachers of core curriculum. Pre-service education should help teachers:

To develop ability to work with people

To learn a great deal about the growth patterns, interests, and abilities of boys and girls

To develop skill in planning, executing, and evaluating classroom work

To acquire skill in the ability to develop and use classroom techniques which will provide the best learning situations

To develop skill in working with members of the community

To develop skill in working with students outside the classroom

To learn to use standardized tests in an effective manner

To use more effectively such evaluation instruments as logs, diaries, and anecdotal records

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The New Ohio School Survey

THERE is to be another survey of public-school education in Ohio. Amended Substitute House Bill No. 771, which was approved on July 21, provides for the appointment of an Ohio school survey committee, which is to "conduct a comprehensive study of the school foundation program and all laws pertaining or relating to public school education in Ohio and to make recommendations to meet such needs as the study shows to exist."

The committee is to be composed of four members of the Senate, appointed by the president pro tempore; four members of the House of Representatives, appointed by the speaker; and three residents of the state, appointed by the governor. It is to employ a director of educational research from outside the state, and other necessary personnel. It may conduct public hearings. "The various departments, commissions, boards, bureaus and universities" of the state are to "render every reasonable service" to the committee and to make available all records requested by it. The committee is to complete its work and render a final report to the General Assembly by December 15, 1954. Since the law becomes effective on October 20, 1953, the committee will have a little less than fourteen months to do its job. The general appropriation bill carries an item of \$75,000 for the committee.

The committee has an exceptional opportunity to advance the cause of public education in Ohio. Its powers and duties are stated in sufficiently broad terms to make possible a really comprehensive study of Ohio public schools and their needs. The appropriation of \$75,000, together with the right to call on other agencies for assistance, would seem to provide amply for its needs. The history of state surveys in Ohio indicates that they have great power for good. The survey of 1913 led directly to the provision of state-wide supervision and other important advances, especially in rural education. The survey of 1932, which was much less comprehensive in scope, laid the basis for the present school-foundation program. Surely few

persons today can doubt that each of these surveys resulted in important forward steps in Ohio education.

Moreover, present circumstances are in many respects favorable to the work of the committee. In the forty years that have passed since the comprehensive survey of 1913, a great deal has been learned about various aspects of education. In recent years widespread and bitter attacks have been made on the work of the schools. For both of these reasons, it is time to focus the best thinking of the lay public and the profession on the problems of public education in Ohio; the survey offers an excellent opportunity to do this.

The law providing for the survey will become effective just before the voters of the state adopt or defeat a proposed amendment to the constitution providing for the establishment of a state board of education and the appointment by this board of the superintendent of public instruction. The amendment has wide support among educators. If it is adopted, the survey committee will have an opportunity to make recommendations about the manner of selecting the state board, its powers and duties, the tenure of the superintendent of public instruction, and so on. Even if the proposed amendment is defeated, the widespread discussion that it is sure to receive will make for greater interest in, and understanding of, public-school problems on the part of the lay public. This in turn will tend to make the survey committee's work more fruitful.

THE fact that the committee has an unusual opportunity to make an outstanding contribution to the progress of education in the state does not, of course, ensure that it will do so. Whether it does, will depend on how it goes about its work. We hope, in the first place, that it conceives its task broadly and studies, not merely finance, but all major aspects of public-school education—objectives, staff, curriculum, organization, administration, relations with communities and other educational agencies, and so on. While a good financial study would undoubtedly make an important contribution, it is not enough: a really comprehensive study is needed. It is only as we understand what the schools are, and ought to be, doing that we shall be in a position to determine how much money they need and how it should be used. A financial study that is part of a comprehensive survey is likely to be more fruitful than one that stands alone.

The success of the survey will depend in large measure upon the choice of the director of educational research; so we hope, in the second place, that the committee succeeds in securing the best possible person for this position. He should combine broad experience in school work with skill in the techniques of educational surveys; a comprehensive grasp of educational problems with a realistic approach in dealing with them.

But, however good the director and the staff, their work alone will not provide an adequate basis for the recommendations of the committee. The committee should study at first hand a wide range of informed opinion on the issues before it. So we hope, in the third place, that the committee uses its power to conduct hearings, not only to secure criticisms of the report after it has been tentatively formulated, but throughout the planning and execution of the survey. The studies of the research staff and the hearings should feed into each other and together provide a basis for the recommendations. The work of various royal commissions in England provides impressive evidence of the value of well-conducted hearings in the study of large educational problems; the committee should make full use of this means of inquiry.

Presumably the committee will be organized and start its work soon after this issue of the BULLETIN appears. We bespeak for it the co-operation of government agencies, the teaching profession, and the citizenry at large. We hope that it conceives and carries out its task in a manner worthy of the great opportunity that has been given it.

R. H. E.



Books to Read

DAVIDSON, AUDREY, AND FAY, JUDITH. *Phantasy in Childhood*. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1953. viii+188 pp.

This book is written for an audience that is psychoanalytically oriented although the authors employ non-technical language. The concept of unconscious phantasy underlies the discussion. Many readers will not find this an easy concept to grasp.

The extensive case material is set in a framework of the theoretical viewpoints of Melanie Klein and Susan Isaacs, and is derived mostly from psychiatric social work with children in a child-guidance clinic, in clubs for children and adolescents, and in residential nurseries in England. Chapter VII gives the history of the phantasies of Dinah, as recorded by her mother, Mrs. O'Kelly.

For the lay reader, the message of this book seems to be the need of emphasis on the reality and the integration of the emotional life of the child, a fact that has only recently begun to be taken into account in child training. The child's inability to express in adult terms the things he is feeling, his fear of attempting to communicate for fear of losing love, have misled many adults into thinking of his plays and his peculiar sayings as meaningless. A whole new world of understanding has been opened by the analytic approach to children's phantasies, whatever may be one's attitude toward the theories of particular groups of workers in this field. This approach to the child world cannot be ignored, particularly by those adults who are endeavoring to help rejected and delinquent children to develop a wholesome mental and emotional life and a good social adjustment. However, at present this approach seems to be a closed one to adults of too literalistic a turn of mind.

Possibly the best suggestion to make about this book is to encourage those who are interested in the idea to look at it, read as much as makes sense, and not worry about the rest. In time, and with more experience and reading, this approach will not be so difficult of comprehension to serious students of child behavior, whether or not they are psychoanalytically trained.

EMILY L. STOGDILL

DODDS, HAROLD W.; HACKER, LOUIS M.; AND ROGERS, LINDSAY. *Government Assistance to Universities in Great Britain*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952. xiv+133 pp.

This volume is a composite of three studies written for the Commission on Financing Higher Education, an agency of the Association of American Universities. Although overlapping one another at points, there is a sense in which these essays are complementary; that is, each looks at the problem of financing higher education in Great Britain—Rogers from the point of view of the government, Hacker from that of the universities, and Dodds, the president of Princeton University, through the eyes of a university administrator.

Although not so intended, this book will be a particularly useful source for students of comparative education in its higher aspects. While the monographs are relatively short, they contain rich data concerning scholarships, enrollments, national and local finance, and relationships between universities and the government, as well as perceptive glances into educational philosophy.

There is little here that can help the administrators of American universities solve their financial problems. In fact, the financial trends of British higher education are sufficient to confirm the worst suspicions of conservative American critics of British institutions. Government support is now near the sixty-per cent mark, with increasing assistance in the offing, along with subsidies for scholarships, medical-education facilities, and continuous underwriting of research in subjects varying all the way from Assyrian and Byzantine history to Yugoslavian and Zoroastrian literature. Perhaps the essence of the answer as to why this trend is not stopped or reversed, lies in the fact, although too many Americans are unaware of it, that even British Tories are left wing when gauged by our unsophisticated political standards.

LLOYD P. WILLIAMS

SAYERS, EPHRAIM VERN. *A First Course in Philosophy of Education*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1952. xvi+399 pp.

In this book, the author's purposes are to aid the reader in clarifying his concepts of the nature of a democratic society and the rôle of education in such a society. Mr. Sayers accomplished his purposes by pointing up a number of issues which underlie these concepts. Then he brings to bear upon the issues a variety of conflicting pertinent quotations from recent and contemporary writers. No particular point of view or philosophical position receives preferential treatment. The author does not attempt to draw conclusions for the reader.

The plan of the book is such as to stimulate class discussion and encourage and guide further reading relevant to the issues selected by the author. While the brief quotations from eminent writers are sufficient to clarify the meanings of the issues, additional reading material would be essential for an adequate grounding of conclusions concerning the issues raised.

ROBERT E. JEWETT

BENNETT, M. E. *College and Life*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952. xii+457 pp.

Now appearing in its fourth edition, Margaret E. Bennett's *College and Life* has been revised with new emphases appropriate to the problems today's college students face in seeking stability in an unstable world. It deals, according to the author's preface, "with the various problems of learning and living in college, which each student must face and solve for himself as a democratic citizen in his college community in order to achieve the real values of a college education" (page vii).

Part I is concerned with "Living in College." The goals and values of a college education, problems of adjustment, budgeting of time and money, the place of extra-curricular activities, and the planning of a program of studies are some of the topics discussed. Part II, called "Learning in College," contains a summary of learning theory and suggestions for effective study,

use of the library, and note-taking. Part III, almost one-half of the book, is entitled "Building a Life." Personality development, mental health, life philosophy, vocational planning, and anticipation of marriage and a home are covered in this section.

Many books have been written to help Freshmen adjust to college. Some attempt to be clever and end up fatuous; others try to be earnest and succeed in being didactic. Miss Bennett has steered a course between these two perils and has achieved a high degree of objectivity by documenting her statements with research data. She includes an extensive bibliography and appendix for those students wishing to pursue any topic further.

Several uses for this volume suggest themselves. It is appropriate as a basic textbook in freshman orientation classes. Various sections of it might also be used by counselors as a kind of bibliotherapy to give counselees background for working out their problems.

It is regrettable that in format the book may appear more ponderous than inviting to its younger audience, but the sincere seeker can find herein a great deal of assistance on the problems common to beginning a college experience.

KATHRYN HOPWOOD

RUGG, HAROLD. *The Teacher of Teachers*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952. x+308 pp.

The central theme of this book is that our teachers should be striving creatively to bring about desirable changes in our society through education. The author would have the teachers thoroughly acquainted with the changes going on in our society and with the influences which are bringing them about. He would have them attempt to lead the citizens of the community in their co-operative efforts to participate in decisions which citizens must be making continuously if democracy is to survive. To the author, the key to effective citizenship is the teacher of teachers, and among them the major hopes lie in the administrator, who should co-ordinate the staff activities in hammering out clear philosophies of life, of society, and of education.

To Rugg, the basic content in teacher education is in the foundations of education. These are: "the science of society and culture," or the social foundations; "the science of behavior," or the biopsychological foundations; and "the art of expression," or the aesthetic foundations. Possible contents of these foundations are given in some detail.

The author states that there was little creativity in the early years of teacher education; rather, the approach was that of the "practical man" conforming to current conditions. He points out certain creative paths which grew in number between 1920 and 1950, but which did not represent any common pattern. Isolated groups now struggle without help from other groups attacking similar problems.

A chapter on the frontiers of practice in teacher education comes largely from the author's round-table discussions at thirty-five universities and colleges on the problems of teacher education. With a few outstanding exceptions, he finds teacher education conservative and unimaginative.

The book has many stimulating ideas. The case for foundations of education is well made. A projection of teacher education to possible practices in

1984 is very well done. Techniques for helping the teacher operate effectively in the proposed pattern need further expansion. Many will disagree with the author's proposals for the reconstruction of our society; even so, they will find his book interesting.

EARL W. ANDERSON

DETJEN, ERVIN WINFRED, AND DETJEN, MARY FORD. *Elementary School Guidance*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952. xii+266 pp.

Guidance and good teaching in the elementary school have long been considered teammates. However, guidance as such has not come in for very extensive treatment in the professional literature directly concerned with elementary education. This book, therefore, meets a real need by bringing into clear focus the various aspects of guidance in relation to the most serious adjustment problems as they are in evidence throughout the elementary-school years.

The general format of the book contributes greatly to its usability. Each of the twenty chapters deals with a particular problem of adjustment. Two to four specific aims are set down at the beginning of each chapter. Then, following a discerning discussion which includes specific illustrations, there are suggested activities for fostering positive adjustment. In some chapters, movies, filmstrips, inventories, and tests are included. Then, finally, at each chapter end a brief bibliography is given.

The authors state clearly that the use of this book calls for thoughtfulness and ingenuity on the part of teachers. Their hope is that their suggestions will not be regarded as a set of tricks for handling classroom situations. Throughout the book they emphasize the importance of the teacher's personality and of warm, understanding relationships between student and teacher.

All teachers who are concerned about ways in which to improve the effectiveness of their guidance rôle will find this book quite helpful.

MARY JANE LOOMIS

FROELICH, CLIFFORD P., AND DARLEY, JOHN G. *Studying Students: Guidance Methods of Individual Analysis*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1952. xviii+411 pp.

This book is the most complete treatment yet written on individual analysis of students. The basic concepts of individual analysis are dealt with in a straightforward manner. The teacher without special training in the area can profit greatly from this book. Statistical methods—a sound understanding of which is absolutely prerequisite to satisfactory individual analysis—are explained clearly.

The book covers all major aspects of individual analysis within the practical range of use by the guidance worker. The sections on making and recording observations, the interview, record forms, and the autobiography are excellent. The greatest emphasis in the book is given to the testing program. All types of tests are discussed and evaluated in terms that can be understood by all educators if they have studied the preceding sections of the book. Appraisal of personal adjustment receives rather brief treatment, but this is such

a complicated subject it was not feasible for the writers to deal with it fully in this book.

In general, this is a book that should be in every high-school library. It is a "must" for all schools which are developing a guidance and testing program.

FRANK M. FLETCHER, JR.

McKILLOP, ANNE S. *The Relationship between the Reader's Attitude and Certain Types of Reading Response*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. x+101 pp.

This is an experimental investigation of the relationship of readers' attitudes to different types of reading response. Five hundred and twelve eleventh-grade students in three schools were given a reading test, a vocabulary test, and three attitude tests dealing with Negroes, Communism, and Israel, as a basis for equating groups and for noting the influence of these factors on the other test results. The different classes also took a special reading test prepared on one of the three topics listed. Each of these special reading tests included a selection favorable to the topic and one selection that was unfavorable. The comprehension questions were of several types: specific detail, making inferences, a judgment question, and choosing a title for the selection.

The experiment seems well set up and executed. The author's findings show that attitude has no statistically significant effect on comprehension of detail, but that when the test items move to larger areas of comprehension and to the making of judgments, then the reader's attitude does have a significant effect on his selection of answers: he tends to select those that conform to his own beliefs. The implications of these findings for the teaching of reading in elementary and high school are discussed.

F. P. ROBINSON

CALIFORNIA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. *Evaluating Pupil Progress*. Sacramento, California: California State Department of Education, 1952. viii+184 pp. (Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXI, No. 6).

This handbook on evaluation, based on a survey of the literature and of evaluation programs in various school systems throughout the country, is designed to serve as a guide for teachers, supervisors, and administrators. Although no one of the topics discussed is dealt with exhaustively, it provides in a manageable volume a great many practical suggestions, and in general includes the basic principles applicable to the evaluation of pupil progress. In addition, limitations and potentialities of the techniques that are recognized as effective in the field of evaluation are presented.

The guide offers evidence of an interesting trend in evaluation concepts that has developed in recent years—the emphasis on observation. This conception is based on the assumptions that objectives of the school curriculum must be formulated and classified, that objectives must be defined in terms of behavior, and, finally, that situations must be identified in which students can be expected to display progress toward objectives. This conception of evaluation is a broad one and is directed toward realizing instructional values from an all-inclusive program of evaluation.

Consistent with this concept of evaluation, the authors discuss a variety of techniques. The teacher's rôle and the rôle of experts in developing techniques and instruments are identified, and numerous suggestions are made to teachers regarding procedures to be used in developing instruments. Following a general introduction and a chapter on testing, the authors have pursued two main themes: aspects of individual growth or development to be evaluated and specific evaluation techniques. The first theme follows logically from the conception of the purpose and nature of evaluation; the second, apparently, is used to facilitate an articulate discussion of techniques which may provide significant evidence concerning a number of facets of growth.

Although there might be some question regarding certain details such as the use of the phrase "appraising capacity for learning" (pages 39-48) and the chapter title "Techniques to Appraise Character Traits—the Rating Scale" (pages 97-124), this compact volume would serve any teacher as a valuable source book on evaluation of student progress. Other features of the handbook include an extensive bibliography, numerous illustrations and examples, and an appendix in which questions frequently asked by teachers are answered on the basis of current practice and recent literature in evaluation.

GUY W. BUDDMEYER

EAST, MARJORIE. *Display for Learning*. Edited by Edgar Dale. New York: Dryden Press, 1952. vii+306 pp.

This book is the first in the audio-visual field aimed at furnishing classroom teachers with guidance on the use of display for educational purposes which offers adequate suggestions to enable them to make effective use of this medium of communication.

The first part of the book is devoted to an excellent treatment of the steps involved in planning the educational display. The major portion of the book, however, is concerned with the translation of plans into the visual symbols which make up various types of display. Judicious use of illustrations, word pictures, outlines, and analyses makes the explanations both interesting and easy to follow.

Because it is so frequently necessary to produce the visual materials essential for carrying out the purposes of a desired display, production and production techniques are examined. Production techniques are considered in such a way as not only to make the reader want to use them but also to challenge his imagination and ingenuity in working out materials especially suited to his own teaching needs.

Finally, excellent criteria and suggestions for evaluating one's own displays are offered, so that the alert teacher can locate faults and work toward more effective displays.

CATHARINE M. WILLIAMS

LODS, JEAN. *Professional Training of Film Technicians*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951. 155 pp.

One of a series of Unesco studies on specific problems of mass communication, this publication briefly describes how film workers have traditionally learned the arts and sciences of motion-picture making, and catalogues present training facilities in the major film-producing countries of the world.

Mr. Lods, dealing almost wholly with the 35mm., theatrical-film field, identifies three evolutionary stages in professional motion-picture training: first, the period characterized by an international exchange of film artists and technicians; second, a period marked by the influx and influence of people from the theater, and from the fields of art, literature, and music; third, a period, now at hand, marked by the organization of professional training centers—in national schools and institutes in most European countries, and in universities in the United States.

The author, co-founder and deputy-director of the Institut des Hautes Études Cinématographiques in Paris, gives a complete and useful description of training programs in Europe but is superficial in his treatment of those in the United States. He neglects the important United States Army and Navy technical-training centers, and underestimates the importance of the need not only for the training of potential theatrical film-makers but also for people to fill the multitude of motion-picture jobs required in the production of educational, research, documentary, television, and other non-theatrical film forms.

ROBERT W. WAGNER

McHose, ELIZABETH. *Family Life Education in School and Community*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. viii+182 pp.

Although not limited in usefulness, this book should be especially valuable as a reference for those individuals in small communities who are searching for ways and means of promoting a well-rounded program in family-life education or of evaluating programs now in progress. The author appears to have had excellent background experience in, and knowledge of, the problems faced by many communities in undertaking family-life education. This experience has been strengthened by conferences with recognized authorities in the field of marriage and the family, a study of the many publications by organizations engaged in promoting this phase of education, and an analysis of teaching guides from various parts of the country.

The study examines some of the significant approaches which have been made in sampling of communities, both large and small, urban and rural; some of the common pitfalls which prevent a successful approach; some of the ways of overcoming the obstacles which are most frequently encountered; and methods by which teaching materials and results may be evaluated.

The book has significance for the student of family relationships, for guidance counselors, social workers, parents, teachers, ministers, and for the researcher desiring to do a penetrating study in education for marriage and the family.

CHRISTINE H. HILLMAN

CURRAN, CHARLES A. *Counseling in Catholic Life and Education*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1952. xxvi+462 pp.

Father Curran's book should be a valuable contribution to the literature in the field of counseling. Through many years of his priesthood, the author has devoted time and research to the study and practice of counseling, and in this book he brings together the modern scientific theories in this area as they are applicable to Catholic life and education.

Eugene Cardinal Tisserant, Bishop of Ostia, Porto, and Santa Rufina, Rome, says in his preface to this work, "the Christian Apostle cannot be unmindful of science, especially of the psychological and sociological sciences . . . [He] cannot neglect the power of science, especially those sciences which directly affect human conduct." He recommends Father Curran's book on counseling because it combines a thorough, accurate knowledge of modern psychological science with a sound integration of Thomistic philosophy and theology.

Father Curran explains in his introduction, "Why Counseling Is Necessary," that human relations are improved through counseling that increases the ability of an individual to understand himself better and to exercise reasonable self-control. This book, he says, is an attempt to show the process through which trained and skilled counselors can help people solve the personal difficulties brought about by the problems of modern living. Counseling is good and helpful, he believes, when it assists the individual to act more reasonably and successfully in his daily life, and helps him to be happier, to make peace with himself, and to grow in virtuous living. He defines counseling, when the counselor's purpose and function are precisely determined, as

. . . a definite relationship where, through the counselor's sensitive understanding and skillful responses, a person objectively surveys the past and present factors which enter into his personal confusions and conflicts and, at the same time, reorganizes his emotional reactions so that he not only chooses better ways to reach his reasonable goals, but has sufficient confidence, courage, and moderation to act on these choices (page 1).

The purpose of the book, according to the author, is to give a detailed explanation of the implications of this definition of counseling through analyzing the changes that an individual experiences in the counseling process, describing the procedures used by counselors to bring about change, and considering "other functions which can prepare the way for counseling" (page 1). He makes use of recent research in the field of counseling, and he illustrates the points he wishes to make by excerpts from counseling interviews. He says,

. . . without departing from the evidence of the data which the interviews themselves reveal, we have, in our theoretical considerations, attempted to join our findings with the broader conclusions of St. Thomas Aquinas in philosophy and theology. Our plan is to present the data of the interviews and to reason about this data; then, for the purpose of a wider integration, to coordinate the results of our investigation with the Thomistic syntheses (page 13).

Following the introduction, the book is divided into five parts: Part I, "The Virtue of Counseling and Counseling Skill"; Part II, "The Process of Personal Integration through Counseling"; Part III, "The Skill of the Counselor"; Part IV, "The Approach to Counseling"; and Part V, "Conclusion."

This work of Father Curran's should serve two purposes. First, it should be useful as a handbook to the many priests, nuns, and lay persons who are engaged in the education of Catholic youth. Second, it should help the non-Catholic educator understand the Catholic view of guidance.

MARY D. BRADBURY

Educational Research Bulletin

NOVEMBER 11, 1953

Vol. XXXII, No. 8

The Preparation and Experience of Ohio City Superintendents

By DAVID MITCHELL SMITH AND NORMAN ZIFF

A STUDY of the educational preparation and professional experience of Ohio city superintendents was made with the co-operation of the School-Community Development Study. This study at Ohio State University is one of eight projects concerned in a nation-wide investigation of the leadership rôle of school administrators. Consequently, it is interested in obtaining and publishing all research which will increase existing knowledge of the needs, interests, and problems of school administrators.

The research reported here, involving the educational preparation, professional experience, age, salary, and certification status of Ohio city superintendents, is based on a questionnaire which was mailed to 135 Ohio city superintendents whose names appeared in the "Educational Directory of the State of Ohio for the School Year 1951-1952." By April 10, 1952, a total of 131 completed questionnaires, or 97 per cent, were returned.¹ The conclusions derived from the data obtained from the questionnaire relevant to the educational preparation and professional experience of these city superintendents may be of particular interest to colleges and universities preparing school administrators.

In reference to the educational preparation of these superintendents, the data show that the social studies and sciences are the most common undergraduate major areas of study, with English the most common minor area. These data are summarized in Table I. Contrary to popular belief, administrators in general are not former physical-education or industrial

¹ Smith, David Mitchell, "Educational Preparation and Professional Experience of Ohio City School Superintendents." 1952. Unpublished Master's thesis on file in the library of Ohio State University. This report is based on an abstract from this thesis.

arts-education majors on the undergraduate level according to these data. Further, it may also be noted that most city superintendents have not majored in elementary education during their undergraduate courses.

In graduate school, at the Master's level, the most common major area was secondary-school administration, followed by superintendency, with elementary-school administration third. Elementary-school administration, however, was found to be the most common minor area. Of the thirteen city superintendents possessing doctoral degrees (9.9 per cent), twelve have a major graduate area in the field of superintendency. Second-

TABLE I
EDUCATIONAL PREPARATION OF OHIO SUPERINTENDENTS

UNDERGRADUATE AREA	PER CENT	
	Major	Minor
(1)	(2)	(3)
Agriculture	3.8	3.8
Business or distributive education	8.5	1.5
Elementary education	5.4	10.0
English or speech	21.5	50.0
Fine arts or music	0.0	2.3
Foreign languages	6.2	25.4
Industrial-arts education	3.1	3.8
Mathematics	21.5	20.8
Physical or health education	5.4	10.8
Psychology	3.1	10.0
Science	41.5	28.5
Social studies	48.5	21.5
Miscellaneous	7.7	5.4

dary-school administration is the second most common major area, with elementary-school administration third. Philosophy of education is the most common minor graduate area of the superintendents.

Most of the superintendents received their academic degrees in Ohio at church-affiliated or private colleges, rather than at state, municipal, or private universities. The data reveal that since 1925, 98.5 per cent of the Bachelors' degrees have been obtained at Ohio colleges and universities. All the superintendents have Masters' degrees (an Ohio requisite for the superintendent's certificate); 85.5 per cent of those received since 1935 were earned at Ohio colleges and universities. Ohio universities granted 80 per cent of the Doctors' degrees to those superintendents receiving them since 1940.

THE professional experience of these superintendents is not as diverse as one might be led to expect. The average superintendent had 20 years of professional experience prior to becoming a city superintendent. This experience was primarily administrative in nature. It was somewhat surprising that 10, or 7.7 per cent, of the entire group reported that they had had no teaching experience at the elementary, secondary, or college level. The lack of reported teaching experience is probably due to the instructions on the questionnaire which stated that dual experience, that is, teaching and serving in an administrative capacity at the same time, should be listed as administrative experience. On the whole, however, the average number of years of teaching experience is 5.56.

The administrative and teaching experience of the city superintendents seems to have been on the secondary-school rather than the elementary-school level. Far more city superintendents have been high-school teachers or principals (junior high school included) than elementary-school teachers or principals. Relatively few of the 130 superintendents have had administrative experience on the elementary-school level, as the following percentages show:

Nature of Elementary Experience	Per Cent
Teacher	30.0
Teacher and principal	9.2
Principal	5.4
Supervisor	0.8
Teacher and supervisor	0.8
Principal and supervisor	0.8
Teacher, principal, and supervisor	0.8
Total	47.8

Note that only 16.2 per cent of the city superintendents have been elementary-school principals. This apparent lack of administrative experience on the elementary-school level tends to conflict with the desirable criteria set forth by educational administrators and authorities throughout the nation.

The high-school principalship and the executive headship are the key positions in the professional experience of the city superintendent. All but 7.7 per cent of the city superintendents reported experience in one or the other of these positions, while 29.2 per cent of them have had experience in both. Over one-half of the city superintendents in Ohio entered the field of educational administration as high-school principals, and ap-

proximately one out of every five of the present city superintendents (21.5 per cent) began his administrative career as an executive head.

Only 13.1 per cent entered the field of educational administration as elementary-school principals. Very few city superintendents are selected from the ranks of the elementary-school principals. Only one superintendent was an elementary-school principal immediately prior to obtaining a position as a city school superintendent, two men were high-school teachers, and the other 127 held various administrative positions.

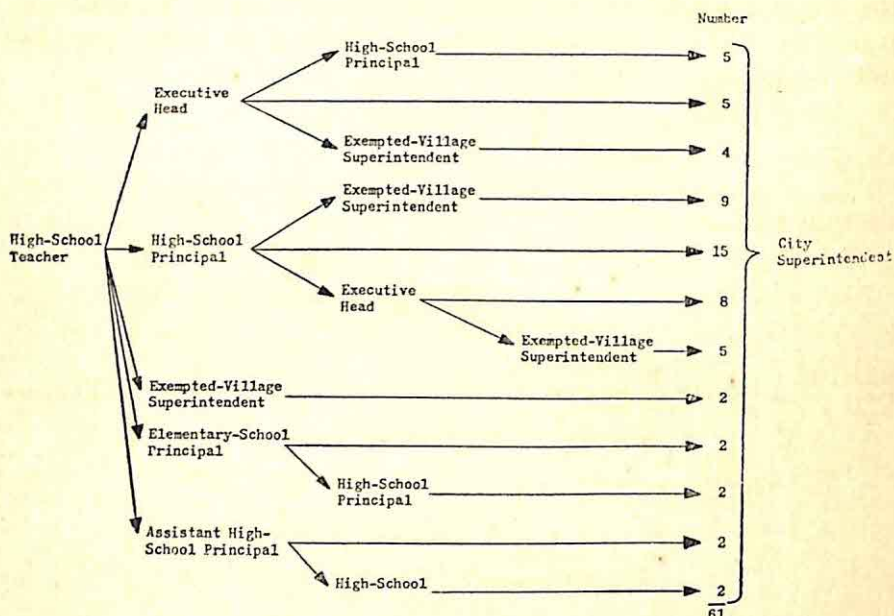


Fig. 1. Patterns of experience of 61 Ohio city superintendents who entered education as high-school teachers.

The professional experience of 102 of these city superintendents was analyzed. Ten of the remaining 28 superintendents reported no teaching experience, and the experience of 18 superintendents was so heterogeneous that they could not be conveniently classified.

The patterns of experience of 61 of the Ohio city superintendents who entered the field of education as secondary-school teachers are pictured in Figure 1. The most prevalent pattern of experience is high-school teacher, high-school principal, and city superintendent.

The 41 experience patterns of those city superintendents who entered education as elementary-school teachers are shown in Figure 2. The most outstanding feature of this chart is that for the most part the men beginning as elementary-school teachers seem to be one more step removed from the city superintendency.

In comparing the data of Figure 1 with those of Figure 2, one finds that the commonest patterns of experience prior to becoming city superintendents are, first, the high-school teacher, high-school principal, and city superintendent; and, second, the elementary-school teacher, high-school teacher, high-school principal, and city superintendent, depending on which was the initial teaching position.

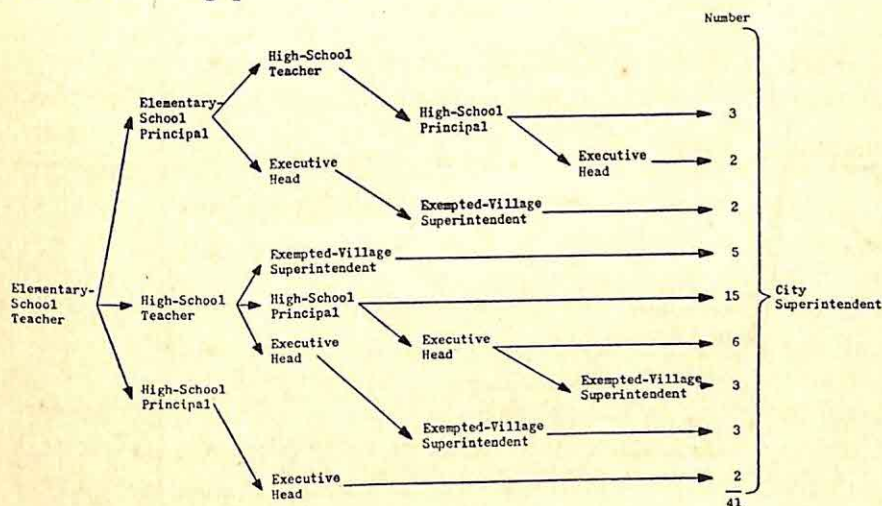


Fig. 2. Patterns of experience of 41 Ohio city superintendents who entered education as elementary-school teachers.

THE major conclusions with reference to the factors of age, salary, tenure, and certification status of these 131 city superintendents may be of some interest to placement officers and potential city superintendents. The average age of the city superintendent when he entered his first city superintendency, with about 20 years' experience, was 42 years. The younger superintendents have tended to enter the city superintendency in shorter periods of time, and with slightly more teaching experience, than did the older city superintendents.

[Continued on page 223]

Morale as Influenced by Participation in Group Planning and Action

By DWIGHT L. ARNOLD

THE individual's attitude toward his work is very important. Interest in one's work builds morale. Although intangible and difficult to define or measure, it profoundly affects happiness and efficiency. In industry, it has been shown that production is closely related to morale.¹ The effectiveness of work with children and youth is also dependent upon the establishment of morale. In view of all this, the school administrator is becoming increasingly concerned about the attitudes of his teachers. Although he urgently needs to know how they are reacting to various procedures, he is often frustrated in his attempts to find out. The "grapevine" method is too unreliable to be used as a major source of information. Effective education cannot take place if teachers and administrators have low morale because they dislike their work or believe that they are not making any progress.

The few studies of teacher morale which have been reported are broad surveys which give general facts but do not give rating forms which a local school officer can use to study his own situation. Some of the best reports describe how morale has been improved in local situations. Many are downright sententious and repetitious. Too much of what is now being written on this subject generalizes about democracy but does not present practical discussion based on occasions on which teachers and administrators planned together.

Morale in one form or another is frequently discussed among teachers and administrators. The attitudes expressed are often at one extreme or the other: "Things are awful!" or "Isn't everything just lovely here?" A major value of the study to be reported here lies in the evidence it offers that morale is not nearly so low or so high as some think. Determining the facts as a basis for discussion will help. Teachers often think that an expression of how they feel will be misunderstood by the administrator, who, on the other hand, is perplexed because he cannot find out the teachers' attitudes.

¹ Roethlisberger, F. J., and Dickson, W. J. *Management and the Worker*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1939.

THE Educational Council of the Ohio Education Association decided in January, 1952, that the findings of an investigation in this important area would be helpful to the schools of Ohio. Consequently it approved a plan to develop a rating sheet so that facts could be collected which would show how teachers feel about morale and participation.

The committee appointed to study this problem finally agreed on three aspects of the subject to be covered in the rating form. Part I deals with attitudes toward faculty meetings, often the target of teachers' criticisms. These criticisms probably do express the mood of a faculty. Do teachers actually feel that meetings are as bad as some say? Or do these opinions merely reflect the negative attitude of a few persons? Is regularity of faculty meetings essential to high morale? Part II deals with intercommunication. The need to be informed is of great importance, as witness the frequent question, "Why weren't we told?" Part III contains items related to mood or morale, to feelings about group action.

The items included in the rating scale were developed by consideration of the over-all problem and by examination of former studies of this problem by members of the Educational Council. The 30 items of the rating sheet—ten in each part—listed in Table III were selected as giving most promise of indicating desirable practices. In order to have a fairly simple form of judging, five descriptive terms to show the frequency of each item were suggested as follows: very often, 5; often, 4; sometimes, 3; seldom, 2; and never, 1. To provide numerical appraisal for these terms several persons were asked to indicate what the terms meant to them. The final estimate was that "very often" meant a frequency of about 75 times out of 100; "often," 50 times; "sometimes," 25; and "seldom," about 10 times. This standard is not highly refined and may well need to be revised, but it meets the present needs. It does make it possible to measure and deal statistically with aspects of morale and participation.

IN ORDER to start collecting data, it was decided to send the rating sheet to a random but fairly representative sample of teachers and principals. Accordingly, ten copies of the O.E.A. Rating Sheet were sent to the president of each local unit of the Ohio Education Association. About 2,700 copies were distributed, with the request that the completed forms be returned

directly to the Association office. Of the 871 usable returns received, 560 sheets were tabulated in this study. The other 311 came in too late to be used in the original tabulation. However, the central tendencies of the two groups are quite similar.

The O.E.A. Rating Sheets returned are classified in Table I according to the types of position held by the persons completing them and the schools in which they were employed. The number of returns is sufficiently large to provide a statistically adequate sample. The method of distributing the teachers' rating sheets through the officers of the teachers' association gives a selected group, and very likely gives higher scores than would result if all the teachers in Ohio were included. This

TABLE I
NUMBER OF TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS WHOSE O.E.A. RATING SHEETS
WERE TABULATED, CLASSIFIED BY TYPE OF SCHOOL

	City	Exempted Village	County	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Elementary-school teachers	149	39	46	234
Junior-high school teachers	47	12	7	66
Senior-high school teachers	86	38	31	155
All teachers	282	89	84	455
Principals	61	13	31	105

probability is further indicated by the fact that, for 54 experienced teachers enrolled in graduate school who completed the form, the mean was decidedly below that of the group reported in this study.

THE mean scores, which were reduced to the 5-point score used in rating each item by dividing the total of scores on an item by the number of persons marking it, are given in Table II. These scores have a narrow range. In fact, they cluster so closely around 3.5 and 4.0 that some question may be raised about the rating form. The scores of the principals were grouped around a mid-point more closely than those of the teachers. Actually 67 per cent of the principals' scores fell between 3.5 and 4.4.

The mean scores of all these groups are relatively high. Certainly there is no evidence here of grossly low general morale. This study supports an investigation reported by Story

in which the finding was that teachers in general are satisfied with the degree of participation they have.² However, if a rating of 4, as indicated, represents about a 50-per cent frequency, then certainly there is room for improvement.

Principals' mean scores were consistently above teachers' mean scores. Perhaps this is as it should be, that the leader sees things optimistically. The most significant question raised by this difference is whether teachers and principals view some important aspects of their common work so differently as to hinder effective collaboration. These questions can also be raised: Are teachers too likely to see the dark side? Are principals too likely to see the rosy side? One of the major values of this rating sheet may be that it helps teachers and principals to understand each other better.

TABLE II
MEAN SCORES ON THE PARTS AND THE WHOLE OF THE RATING SHEET

GROUP	Number Completing Sheet	Part I Faculty Meetings	Part II Inter- communi- cation	Part III Mood or Morale	Whole Rating Sheet
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Principals	105	3.8	4.1	3.8	3.9
All teachers	455	3.6	3.7	3.6	3.6
High-school teachers...	155	3.4	3.7	3.4	3.5
Junior-high school teachers	66	3.7	3.8	3.6	3.7
Elementary-school teachers	234	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7

MEAN scores on the parts of the O.E.A. Rating Sheet are of interest. Part II, Intercommunication, is rated higher than Part III, Mood or Morale (*see* Table III). This probably means that exchange of information is on a higher plane in most schools than are faculty meetings. However, it may merely mean that the items in Part II arouse more criticism than those in Parts I and III. Senior-high school teachers rated them consistently lower than did junior-high school or elementary-school teachers. This finding is similar to that reported by Chase, that morale is higher among elementary-school teachers than among high-school teachers.³

² Story, M. S. "Do Teachers Want More Democracy?" *Journal of Education*, 134 (March, 1951), p. 90.

³ Chase, Francis S. "Factors in Satisfaction in Teaching," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXXIII (November, 1951), pp. 127-32.

TABLE III

MEAN SCORES OF TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS BY ITEMS

Items on O.E.A. Rating Sheet	Principal	Teacher
(1)	(2)	(3)
Part I. Faculty Meetings—		
A. Leader gives adequate explanation of matters that have been administratively decided.....	4.3	4.1
B. After a meeting of this group, members feel tired and frustrated*	3.4	3.4
C. Leader shows skill in directing group discussion.....	3.6	3.7
D. There is full faculty discussion of all important matters	4.2	3.7
E. Lectures or addresses, when used, are adequately condensed, well organized, informative, and inspirational..	3.7	3.6
F. Leader distinguishes between items to be decided by him and announced, items to be decided by him after discussion, and items to be decided by the whole group..	4.2	3.8
G. Reports from committees are presented to the entire group for discussion and approval.....	4.1	3.8
H. Small discussion groups or "buzz" sessions are used as a means of clarifying a problem under discussion..	2.9	2.6
I. Action follows faculty discussion and decision.....	4.2	3.8
J. Problems or topics for faculty discussion are secured from members	3.7	3.3
Mean for Part I.....	3.8	3.6
Part II. Intercommunication—		
A. The leader makes it easy for the members to talk to him	4.6	4.1
B. The leader is sensitive to members' feelings.....	4.3	3.8
C. Members in this group feel confused as to what the general policies are*.....	3.6	3.2
D. Members feel that they are informed as early as possible about changes which are important to them.....	4.2	3.8
E. There is a difference between what members say to each other and what they say to the leaders*.....	3.2	3.0
F. Written policies or statements are effectively used in informing members	3.9	3.8
G. There is a feeling in this group that some later or hidden penalty may come from displeasing the leader*..	4.2	4.1
H. In this group one is supposed to say that the group is democratic even though he feels otherwise*.....	4.5	4.0
I. The leader listens to our ideas and "gripes".....	4.2	3.8
J. The leader actually seeks critical comments from members	4.1	3.4
Mean for Part II.....	4.1	3.7
Part III. Mood or Morale—		
A. In this group members have a sense of belonging and of being needed.....	4.1	3.7
B. The leader seems to want everything to depend on his judgment*	3.7	3.4
C. Members of this group express discontent*.....	3.7	3.5
D. There seem to be difficulties about minor matters*.....	3.7	3.5
E. In working with this group one gets the feeling that the members are deeply concerned that the group itself function well	3.9	3.7

TABLE III [Continued]

Items on O.E.A. Rating Sheet	Principal	Teacher
(1)	(2)	(3)
F. There is a desire in this group to find solutions which are acceptable to all its members.....	4.0	3.8
G. This group gets things done.....	3.9	3.8
H. Members work on group projects willingly.....	3.9	3.7
I. Members seem more concerned about their own fields or departments than the whole program*.....	3.2	3.0
J. Members enjoy working here.....	4.1	4.0
Mean for Part III.....	3.8	3.6

* Starred items are stated negatively. However, they were marked and scored for this table so that high score means the opposite of the statement.

The items on the rating sheet are given in the first column of Table III, with the mean scores made on each by the 105 principals (*see* Column 2) and the 455 teachers (*see* Column 3). Items rated high by both teachers and principals include three which are related to intercommunication (II, A, G, and H), one item on faculty meetings (I, A), and one item on morale (III, I). There is agreement that administrative items are adequately explained and that there is a flow of thinking between teachers and administrators most of the time. Teachers indicate a definite liking for their present work situation (Item III, J), although the rating of about 4.0 given on each of these items by the teachers suggests that there is room for improvement when it is remembered that "4" means about 50 per cent of the time. However, these data support the view that on the whole morale is good.

The items rated lowest by principals and teachers included Items I, H; II, C and E; and III, I. The last three of these are negatively stated items, and the lower scores may merely reflect a defect in the construction of the scale. The use of small discussion groups is fairly new and not yet widespread. The admitted confusion about policies may indicate that some teachers want policies not only defined but "laid down." The attempt to develop greater faculty participation may tend at first to create confusion. Sometimes policies simply are not defined. Overemphasis on departmental work seems to be admitted by teachers.

The widest disagreements between teachers and principals were on items concerning interchange of thinking, especially when it involved possible criticism (II, J, H, A, and I, D).

This strongly suggests that teachers and administrators view intercommunication differently. Perhaps this difference of opinion grows out of the simple fact that there are several teachers and only one administrator in a school unit. It may mean that our administrative pattern is inadequate and that one person cannot satisfactorily supervise the work of more than 10, or at most 15, workers.

Apparently only about 10 per cent feel constrained to say the procedures are democratic even though they think otherwise (Item II, H), yet even this number is too large. Being democratic is much more difficult than many of us suspect. The difference of opinion on faculty discussion of important matters may grow out of the fact that faculty meetings tend to be too largely concerned with topics important to the principal and do not give sufficient consideration to topics important to the teachers.

AT THE end of the rating sheet questions were asked regarding the size of the faculty and the frequency of meetings. There was an almost complete lack of any relationship between the total scores on the rating sheet and the number of teachers on the faculty.

No clear-cut relation was found to exist between the frequency of teachers' meetings and the teachers' ratings of the value of them. However, those teachers who reported that their schools held meetings less frequently than once a month rated faculty meetings lower than did the teachers reporting more frequent meetings. There is some indication that teachers favor bi-weekly meetings. Monthly meetings would seem to be too far apart to maintain the necessary continuity.

Coefficients of correlation were calculated between scores on Part I, Faculty Meetings, and frequency of faculty meetings for city elementary-school teachers, senior-high school teachers, and principals; these were $+.16$, $+.12$, $+.16$, respectively. A positive relationship here would show that more meetings mean better meetings.

There is, apparently, almost every conceivable variety of time plan for faculty meetings. One teacher humorously, but it appears accurately, answered this question concerning how frequently faculty meetings were held by writing "spasmodically." Approximately 25 per cent of the teachers report no regularly scheduled faculty meetings, while about 10 per cent

report meetings every week. Monthly meetings are most common, but a fifth of the schools have meetings every two weeks.

THE range of teachers' and principals' scores on the rating scale is given in Table IV. These must be used with caution; they do furnish some basis of comparison. Lower scores would probably be found in a more comprehensive sample of teachers. This table shows that about 10 per cent of the teachers made total scores below 2.4, and 10 per cent of the principals scored below 2.8.

TABLE IV
PERCENTILE RANKS OF THE SCORES ON THE THREE PARTS
OF THE O.E.A. RATING SHEET

PERCENTILE RANK OF SCORES	O.E.A. RATING SHEET			
	Part I	Part II	Part III	Total
Teachers' Scores				
90th	4.6	4.7	4.6	4.4
75th	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.1
50th	3.7	3.8	3.7	3.6
25th	3.0	3.1	3.0	2.9
10th	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.4
Principals' Scores				
90th	4.6	4.7	4.5	4.4
75th	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.2
50th	4.0	4.1	3.9	3.8
25th	3.5	3.7	3.5	3.5
10th	3.0	3.4	2.8	2.8

Twenty-four correlations were calculated between part scores and total scores for the two major groups. These data indicate a close relationship between scores on each of these parts. This same result might come from a halo effect in which the rater is giving a general impression and not reacting specifically to the various items in the sheet. That this is true to some degree seems likely; however, it also seems clear that there are close relations between these different aspects as measured here.

The highest correlations were between Part II and total score. This strongly suggests that adequate exchange of information or intercommunication is closely related to over-all morale and participation. This would indicate that the quality and type of intercommunication may be more important than

the faculty meeting; although it would seem that, at its best, the faculty meeting would be a major means of exchanging information. The great need to talk and be informed may be a fundamental in morale.

Part III and the total score are also very closely related. This probably means that the whole rating sheet gives a good over-all appraisal of morale. Parts I and II are least closely related, a fact which suggests that ratings on intercommunication and on faculty meetings are dealing with somewhat different things.

Reliability coefficients were calculated for each part and for the total. The split-halves method was used. The papers from 80 teachers were used for this part of the study. The coefficients of reliability were found to be as follows: Part I, .86; Part II, .88; Part III, .93; total score, .95. This rating sheet is measuring something reliably, although the "halo effect" may make the figures spuriously high.

RATING forms such as this can be developed and used to secure reliable information about teacher morale and attitudes. They provide valuable information as to how well certain procedures are working. This method, if used carefully, is vastly superior to gathering information through "hearsay and grapevine." Because of the importance of morale, such rating forms can be of great value to those who are seriously attempting to utilize fully the capacities of members of the staff.

Principals rate morale and participation items higher than do teachers. In general, this study points to the fact that morale is fairly high but that there are many areas needing joint study and improvement. There is especial need for improvement in the use of small discussion or "buzz" groups, in frank interchange of views, in clarification of general policies, and in developing concern for the program as a whole. Teachers' meetings appear to accomplish more when scheduled every other week. This may be due to better planning through a regular schedule of meetings.

The voluntary use of rating sheets by building executives will be a valuable next step. One administrator who saw the scale as it was being constructed asked to use it with his staff. He took it himself. Each of his teachers was given a copy and directed to return it when completed to a member of the

Council Committee, so that the administrator never saw any teacher's rating sheet. A member of the Committee tabulated the teachers' scores and gave a summary to the executive, including his scores and his teachers' mean scores on each item and on each part. Thus he could see what the general sentiments of his teachers were but he did not know any teacher's rating. This protected him from being accused of misuse of critical information, and the teachers from the fear of being individually misunderstood. This administrator believed that the procedure was very helpful.

Such careful voluntary use will have many important values. It will open an area for discussion and action on matters that have frequently been considered "undiscussible." It will point out specific items or areas which may need further improvement and joint study. It will provide a channel for significant information.

Revision of items in this rating sheet is probably needed. Three items in particular have called forth critical comment from a few persons. These are II, C, E, and H. They violate a principle in attitude-surveying, set up by Arthur in his article in the *Personnel Journal*, that questions should be avoided which "stir up hornets' nests" or tend to build negative attitudes.⁴

The present scale may be justifiably questioned also because it lays very heavy emphasis on the responsibilities of leaders and relatively little on the responsibilities of members.⁵ It is desirable that another sheet be constructed which would evaluate the attitudes and responsibilities of teachers.

⁴ Arthur, Guy B., Jr. "Employee Opinion Surveys That Help Management," *Personnel Journal*, XXIX (December, 1950), p. 261.

⁵ Hobson, Robert L. *Studies in Higher Education*, LXXIII. Purdue, Indiana: Purdue University, pp. 1-64. (Further Studies in Attitudes, Series 18).

NOTE: The members of the committee appointed by the Educational Council of the Ohio Education Association were Kenneth Hazen, a teacher in the Junior High School, Alliance, Ohio, who acted as chairman; Harold Smith, principal of the Boys' Industrial School, Lancaster, Ohio; and George Lucht, a graduate student who worked as an assistant on the project.

Education and Mental Illness: a Preliminary Report

By ROBERT M. FRUMKIN

MANY people working in the field of mental health have suggested that they have the impression that the more education an individual has, the greater are his chances of not becoming mentally ill. Although many believe this, there is little evidence at present with which to support such a contention.

The main purpose of the study reported in this short paper was to test the following hypothesis: There is an inverse relationship between the extent of formal education completed by individuals and their rates of mental illness as evidenced in first admissions to mental hospitals.

In order to test this hypothesis, the records were examined of the 2,443 persons having major mental disorders who entered Ohio state mental hospitals during the year ending December 31, 1949. The records of these persons were classified according to sex and the extent of the formal education each had completed.

From the Ohio census report for 1950 the rates were computed for men and women per 100,000 in the general population over twenty-five years of age who had completed elementary school, high school, or college, as well as for those who had had no education. These rates per 100,000 are given in the last row of Table I. Above them in appropriate rows are given the rates per 100,000 of the men and women who in 1949 entered the mental hospitals suffering from the various mental disorders listed in the first column of the table. For example, the figures given in the first row of the second and third columns of the table show that the rates per 100,000 of the men and women with no formal education afflicted with syphilitic psychosis who entered the hospitals for the first time in 1949 were 15.2 and 6.2.

IN GENERAL, there seems to be an inverse relationship between education and rates of admission to mental hospitals. However, within certain specific mental disorders this relationship does not always hold true. Of the commonest mental illnesses,

syphilitic psychosis seems to provide the greatest confirmation of our stipulated hypothesis for both males and females. Thus, male syphilitic psychotics with no formal education had a rate of 15.2 per 100,000, but those with a college education a rate of only 1.9; female syphilitic psychotics with no education had a rate of 6.2, while those with a college education had a rate of only 1.1. This inverse relationship also holds true for male alcoholic psychotics and schizophrenics, for female senile psychotics, for psychotics with cerebro-arteriosclerosis, and for involutional psychotics.

TABLE I

RATES OF FIRST ADMISSIONS TO OHIO STATE MENTAL HOSPITALS, BY MENTAL DISORDER, BY EXTENT OF FORMAL EDUCATION COMPLETED, AND BY SEX, FOR THE YEAR ENDED DECEMBER 31, 1949*

MENTAL DISORDER	NO EDUCATION†		ELEMENTARY SCHOOL		HIGH SCHOOL		COLLEGE	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Syphilitic Psychosis	15.2	6.2	10.0	5.7	3.3	1.3	1.9	1.1
Alcoholic Psychosis	21.2	0.0	13.1	1.6	3.7	0.6	1.6	1.4
Psychosis with Cerebro-arteriosclerosis	42.4	50.0	21.0	19.6	2.6	2.6	4.8	0.7
Senile Psychosis	45.5	21.9	11.3	11.8	0.9	1.3	2.5	0.0
Involutional Psychosis	0.0	21.9	5.0	10.6	0.8	3.3	0.3	1.4
Manic-depressive Psychosis	0.0	0.0	4.4	6.5	2.4	4.1	3.2	2.2
Schizophrenia	18.2	9.4	14.5	19.9	10.6	14.1	6.4	8.3
Paranoid Conditions	3.0	0.0	2.2	2.2	0.9	0.8	0.6	1.1
Psychoneurosis	0.0	0.0	3.7	2.4	1.7	3.6	1.0	2.2
Number per 100,000	145.5	109.4	85.2	80.3	26.9	31.7	22.3	18.4

* Rates per 100,000 of the Ohio population, aged twenty-five years and older, according to data obtained from the 1950 census of Ohio.

† These constitute only 3.3 per cent of the total first admissions.

If we accept the assumption that the extent of one's formal education is directly related to the extent of one's income, prestige, and socioeconomic status as they are manifested in one's occupation, and that there is an inverse relationship between rates of mental illness and income, prestige, and socioeconomic status as manifested in occupation,¹ then, for the particular mental illnesses listed in the table, our findings

¹ See R. M. Frumkin, "Occupation and Mental Illness," *Public Welfare Statistics*, VII (September, 1952), pp. 4-13; see also, A. B. Hollingshead and F. C. Redlich, "Social Stratification and Psychiatric Disorders," *American Sociological Review*, XVIII (April, 1953), pp. 163-69.

support the previous findings concerning occupation and mental illness.

However, in the case of manic-depressive psychosis, paranoid conditions, and psychoneurosis, the relationship, for some unknown reason, does not follow. It has been suggested that constitutional factors may be responsible for these inconsistencies, but further evidence is needed to test the validity of this contention. Despite these inconsistencies, the general relationship between education and rates of mental illness is significant and warrants further investigation.

IT WAS the purpose of this study to test the hypothesis which states that there exists an inverse relationship between the extent of formal education completed by individuals and their rates of mental illness. In general, our findings substantiate the validity of this hypothesis. However, it has been pointed out that within certain specific mental illnesses such a relationship does not always hold true. The etiology of these inconsistencies must be sought on a clinical, individual, case-method basis.

The general validity of our hypothesis is further substantiated by adjacent studies on socioeconomic status, if we agree with the assumption that education is directly related to socioeconomic status. In these studies it has been shown that an inverse relationship exists between rates of mental illness and income, prestige, and socioeconomic status as evidenced in occupation.

[Vol. XXXII, No. 8]

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The Teacher's Job and His Training for It

THE Department of Education of Yale University, in co-operation with the Board of Education of Fairfield, Connecticut, is about to begin a large-scale investigation of elementary-school teaching as it is practiced in the public schools of Fairfield. The principal purpose of the project is to study the job of elementary-school teachers in relation to their professional training.

The study will be financed by the Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education, which has already made a grant of \$50,000 to cover the first year's work. The Citizens' Council of Fairfield, which originally suggested the study, the Fairfield Education Association, and the State Department of Education will participate as consultants to the Yale Department of Education. An executive committee composed of representatives of several interested groups will guide the project and report at regular intervals to a larger advisory committee, which will include representatives of Yale, the State Department of Education, the Fairfield Board of Education, the administrative staff of the Fairfield public schools, the Fairfield Education Association, the Connecticut Education Association, the Citizens' School Study Council, and the Fairfield P.T.A. Council. The study will be co-ordinated with a similar project, also financed by the Fund for the Advancement of Education, in Bay City, Michigan.

An analysis of teachers' duties, to distinguish those that are professional from those that are technical, will be used to determine which ones might be modified, re-assigned, or discontinued without impairing the teachers' effectiveness in their essential obligations. The study will consider, for example, whether the current shortage of teachers can be alleviated by the use of teachers' aides to do nontechnical work such as is done by nurses' aides in many hospitals.

Analyzing teachers' duties and deriving tentative conclusions from the analysis will constitute the first stage of the project. At the conclusion of this stage, experimental procedures

will be initiated to test the validity of the tentative conclusions. This will not be the first study that has made an analysis of the teacher's job; but so far as the present writer knows, it is the first on so large a scale to combine job analysis with experimental verification of results. This investigation will have important implications for class-size, school-building construction, and other phases of elementary education, but it will be concerned primarily with the professional preparation of elementary-school teachers and, no doubt, will make its greatest contribution in this area.

SUCH a study has long been needed. It seems clear that even our better teacher-education programs are far less effective than they ought to be. To a large extent they have developed on the basis of hunches, common sense, and convention. Many courses in both the subject-matter and the pedagogical fields reflect the scholarly interests of the professors rather than a careful inquiry into the most important needs of teachers. The present project should do much toward making teacher-education programs more functional. This is a greatly needed emphasis.

It is not only the design, however, that makes this study so promising. The thirteen schools of Fairfield, with an enrollment of six thousand, constitute a good-sized field situation. Since the investigation may extend over as much as ten years, there will be time enough to secure conclusive results. Financial support, no doubt, will be adequate. The composition of the advisory committee would seem to ensure the inclusion of all relevant considerations in planning and carrying out the study and in drawing conclusions. It will be strange indeed if, with all these things in its favor, the study does not make a contribution of major importance.

This is not to say that there are no dangers in this approach. It would be easy to overemphasize present school practice as the determinant of teacher competence. The aim of teacher education ought not to be the perpetuation of the *status quo*; a sound program must give due weight both to what is and to what ought to be.

If the news release announcing the study is correct, there is one feature of the plan that needs to be reconsidered.

[Continued on page 224]



Books to Read

COUNCIL OF STATE GOVERNMENTS. *Higher Education in the Forty-Eight States*. Chicago: Council of State Governments, 1952. xvi+317 pp.

This report of a study of the organization and financing of state programs of higher education, which was made primarily for the use of governors of the various states, is a mine of information for anyone interested in the field of higher education. The most recent data presented are for the year 1950.

A general overview of the organization and operation of institutions of higher education is presented, including the history of the development of various phases of higher education, statistics and explanation of various phases of the administration of higher education, comparative information regarding expenditures, finance, and income relating to higher education in the forty-eight states, and descriptions of the organization of higher education. The seventeen charts and thirty-seven extensive tables present valuable comparative data on almost every aspect of higher education. The writers conclude that higher education will continue to expand in services and in expenditures, that the major share of financial support will come from public funds, and that the state institutions of higher education must secure and maintain an effective co-ordination of their endeavors in order that public funds for higher education be most usefully expended.

EARL W. ANDERSON

MOLONEY, JAMES CLARK. *The Battle for Mental Health*. New York Philosophical Library, Inc., 1952. xii+105 pp.

Dr. Moloney is an eminent American psychoanalyst who has spoken before many audiences in the interest of the Cornelian Corner Movement (rooming-in of babies with their mothers in maternity hospitals). He emphasizes here in a written medium the need for parents to have relaxed attitudes which he has advocated in his talks. He believes that his words may be more lastingly influential when read than when heard briefly in a single public address.

Dr. Moloney defines mental health as "adequacy in thinking and feeling at each stage of development." "The mature adult in good mental health . . . is honestly constructive and cherishes the constructiveness of his fellows. . . . Resilient, he adjusts to life or adjusts his environment to his own requirements, without any slavish addiction to pre-determined patterns" (page 2).

The author believes the infant to be born mentally healthy, but in contact with an emotionally sick mother he cannot escape infection. He illustrates this with cases from his own practice and from literature, and points out, by contrast, the value of a "warm maternal climate" (page 22). He considers that "good intentions alone" are not enough in this respect. He uses the term "the mother ally" to describe his concept of the desirable relationship.

Dr. Moloney shows, statistically, the amount of mental ill health in the United States today, and at considerable length points out what aspects of our American culture disturb mental health. Some of these disturbing attitudes are named as competitiveness, anxiety, conspicuous consumption, "scientific absentia from infants."

Not only does the author advocate keeping the newborn infant and his mother together in the hospital, as a method of increasing relatedness between them in a positive, health-giving sense; he discusses how relaxation may be promoted in mothers themselves. He thinks we should *stop blaming mothers*. He suggests also that the inferiority complexes of physicians have been related to errors in child and mother education at their hands. He suggests that babies need an atmosphere different from the aseptic and impersonal one of the general hospital, and that perhaps a wholly separate institution is the answer.

If the reader can overlook the polemical tone of this little book, he will find many important and rather fresh ideas in it. In many persons, the challenging tone of the book may produce antagonistic reactions. However, the ideas it presents deserve serious consideration, even though they are presented to support a particular pressure group.

EMILY L. STOGDILL

SPIERS, EDWARD F. *The Central Catholic High School*. Washington, D. C.: Catholic University of America Press, 1951. xvi+216 pp.

Father Spiers' book reports the results of his thorough study of the history and present status of the central Catholic high schools in the United States. The central Catholic high school, he says, represents "the effort on the part of diocesan authorities to provide a better secondary education [for Catholic youth] by combining resources rather than by individual parish or community effort" (page 2).

The movement toward centralization of Catholic high schools parallels to a great extent the effort of the public schools to bring small school districts into the consolidated public high schools. Where consolidation has been tried, educators and administrators have found that usually such high schools serve the communities involved better because financially they are more economical, the administration is more efficient, and the quality of instruction is higher. Father Spiers has found through his study that the central Catholic schools have the same advantages over the smaller non-central Catholic high schools. The constantly increasing cost of building construction and school operation points to the necessity for more efficient methods of providing secondary education that will better meet the needs of Catholic youth. Staffing the schools is another problem faced by Catholic educators today because of the limited number of trained teachers available. The central Catholic high school seems to provide the best solution.

The movement toward centralization started with the establishment of the Roman Catholic High School at Philadelphia, in 1890. It was given impetus by the organization of the Catholic Educational Association in 1904. The activities of this group attracted the interest of Catholic educators throughout the nation. The rapid expansion of the movement is indicated by the following facts presented in this study: in 1912, only 15 such schools were in existence; 61 were in operation during 1924-25; in 1951, at

the time of this study, there were 165 central Catholic high schools operating in 61 dioceses throughout the United States. Catholic secondary education seems to be expanding, particularly through the central Catholic high school.

In the introduction to the study, Father Spiers gives a concise, clear outline of the organization of the Catholic school system in the United States. The ensuing chapters include a discussion of the origin and development of the central Catholic high-school movement and valuable data about the existing schools: cost of construction, methods of finance, cost of operation, administration and instruction, curriculum and co-curriculum, and problems of organization. In his last chapter he sets forth recommendations based on the facts and conclusions drawn from the study.

The book should prove to be of great value to all persons concerned with Catholic education. Public-school officials and employees should profit from reading it also, because, as Ward G. Reeder says in the preface,

too many of these persons know nothing about the administration and financing of the Catholic schools, and this ignorance sometimes breeds suspicion and intolerance. The Catholic schools have many features which the public schools might well emulate (page vii).

MARY D. BRADBURY

HART, JOSEPH K. *Education in the Humane Community*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951. xiv+172 pp.

The late Joseph K. Hart envisioned the educational process as encompassing more than the total school program. In the present volume, a publication of the John Dewey Society, Mr. Hart asserts that the old-time local community provided the child with the essential aspects of his education. With the disintegration of the local community this many-sided education largely disappeared. The school was unable to meet the need because "habits and skills necessary to actual social living cannot be developed in the schools, for the simple reason that such habits and skills are the products of real situations which cannot be got inside the schoolroom" (page 28).

The school, however, while it cannot provide the total pattern of education for the child, has an unusual and vital function to perform. This function is "to help the child, the youth, the adult develop the ability to *think*; that is, to discover the meanings of the experiences that come upon him, and to use these meanings to organize his life and his world" (page 88).

Mr. Hart, in this book, advocates the re-establishment of the humane community within the framework of urban living. The author, by clearly defining the limits of formal education, enables us, in the words of H. Gordon Hullfish, editor of the book, to "know better how to get on with the real business of education" . . . (page ix).

ROBERT E. JEWETT

ULICH, ROBERT. *Crisis and Hope in American Education*. Boston: Beacon Press, 1951. xiv+235 pp.

Mr. Ulich's purpose in writing an analysis of American education is succinctly set forth in his preface: "This book is an attempt at evaluating the educational system of the United States from the schools for the young up to the universities and the various forms of adult education" (page xi). Ele-

mentary education, however, receives only incidental treatment. And although his analysis of the "crisis" is trenchant, his bases for "hope" fail to coerce belief when considered in the light of the predatory quest for gain so dominant in American life.

Ulich's position in educational philosophy, at least so far as it is expressed in this book, must inevitably be a lonely one. He can scarcely be an orthodox essentialist, because of his sense of humanity and his warm sympathy for mankind. Nor, surely, can he be a progressive, because of his emphasis upon *Truth*. Even religiously, Ulich is difficult to categorize, because the religion he wants is one that vitalizes human existence and sensitizes the minds and hearts of men without orthodoxy.

Admirable indeed is the author's capacity to hang American education and professional educators on the horns of dilemmas—dilemmas sometimes derived from a society shot through with contradictions, and dilemmas sometimes made by the educators themselves. It is clear that Ulich does not make the mistake of assuming, as some educators occasionally do, that change is synonymous with progress. Although neither the educational liberal with a mission nor the educational conservative with a vested interest will find complete solace here, Mr. Ulich has written a provocative book, enriched by his profound knowledge of history and literature, for layman and teacher alike.

LLOYD P. WILLIAMS

MACOMBER, FREEMAN GLENN. *Teaching in the Modern Secondary School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952. xii+348 pp.

The aims of teacher education, according to this author, should be stated as competencies to be developed, and he believes that they fall into three major areas: general education, technical education, and professional education. This book, which is intended to be used in the education of prospective secondary-school teachers, stresses the aims of professional education. This reviewer feels that the aims as stated in the first chapter, entitled "Purposes of Teacher Education," are couched in such pedagogical jargon that the most earnest and determined teacher might become discouraged and put aside a book which contains, in other chapters, valuable and useful ideas.

The psychological principles and philosophical considerations set forth in Chapters II and III are generally accepted by teachers, but they, too, are stated in formidable terms which many sophomore and junior teacher candidates, who are still far removed from the reality of the teaching situation, would have a hard time finding meaningful.

The three chapters on organizing instruction around major centers of interest should be helpful in assisting prospective secondary-school teachers to understand the experience approach, especially if the college-classroom situation is set up according to this pattern. If this is used as mere lecture material, it will probably not touch the prospective teacher, who, in many cases, has his pattern of teaching, the subject-matter approach, already firmly fixed because of his high-school and college training. If, however, one or more of his college courses are set up as an experience unit, he may feel that he can attempt this different organization in his own classroom.

The discussion of the high-school teacher's obligation to help young people

develop basic skills in the three *R*'s and also in the fundamentals of living is excellent. Many high-school teachers who give lip service to the psychological principle that learning is an individual matter are impatient and sometimes contemptuous of their students because of the low level of their reading skills. Dean Macomber's suggestions for helping high-school students learn to read better seem sound and should be of assistance to the prospective teacher and the teacher in the field.

A good chapter on the relationship of the teacher and the administration should prove valuable because of the realistic point of view it presents along with practical suggestions. The list of visual aids at the end of the book is especially good because it presents a wide range of films and film strips, carefully annotated. Each chapter begins with a list of study problems and ends with a bibliography of suggested readings in the area.

This book should be a useful resource in teacher education. Its real fault, according to this reviewer, is that it suffers from "too much of a muchness." By that she means that the author tries to cover too wide a range of material. The format is forbidding because of a too small and unattractive type face, too narrow margins, and too full pages.

MARY D. BRADBURY

HARAP, HENRY, AND MERRITT, ELEANOR. *Trends in Production of Teaching Guides*. Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1952. 31 pp.

Because this monograph has the answers to many of the specific questions faced by those engaged in curriculum revisions, it should be read by all persons directly concerned with curriculum development.

This is a critical study of 543 representative teaching guides produced during the three-year period 1948-50. "The first part of this survey reports the general trends as they apply to all courses of study. . . . The second part represents the tendencies in each of the subjects. The pamphlet ends with a summary of the most significant conclusions" (page 5).

Among significant trends revealed are the following: there is a decided increase both in output and quality of teaching guides; guidance rather than prescription is much more generally accepted as the function of courses of study; the curriculum workshop is steadily gaining ground, and, increasingly, classroom teachers are acting as leaders of production committees. Other significant trends found are these: frequent organization of learning activities into coherent learning units, the majority of which are functional in character and socially real; on the secondary level, appreciable increase in core curriculums and in fused subjects; suggestions for wider use of community resources; increased guidance for adjusting teaching to individual differences of the learners.

CATHARINE M. WILLIAMS

WESLEY, EDGAR BRUCE. *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1952. xiii+466 pp.

Many people already familiar with the earlier book will be eager to see this revised edition. The authors derived their imperatives for revision from the wide and continued use of their book by students and teachers involved in

curriculum development for elementary schools. The changes and additions encompass about 45 per cent of the material presented, and the entire volume has been reorganized.

In Part I, "The Social Studies in Elementary Education," the authors construct a substantial framework for the social studies which holds up well for an over-all examination of many of the current trends and unsolved problems in elementary education. Four particular issues for study are cited: the proper relationships between society and the school, the nurturing of wholesome personality through curriculum and method, the rôle of the teacher, and the discovery and application of valid principles, procedures, and methods for curriculum making. These four important issues are the threads of continuity for a comprehensive treatment of the social studies.

Through a process of re-reading and taking copious notes, the reviewer found the following sections to be particularly helpful: "The Child and the Teacher" (Part 2), "Developing and Experiencing Units" (Chap. 15), "Developing Concepts and Generalizations" (Chap. 18), "Evaluating the Outcomes" (Part 7). These represent only a sampling of the sections for thought-provoking reading, agreement, and questioning.

As a textbook or as a resource book this volume will be important to both prospective teachers and in-service teachers who value their professional responsibility for curriculum development.

MARY JANE LOOMIS

THOMPSON, LAURA. *Personality and Government: Findings and Recommendations of the Indian Administration Research*. Mexico, D. F.: Inter-American Indian Institute, 1951. xviii+229 pp. (Distributed by the Institute of Ethnic Affairs, Inc., 810 18th Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.).

New attitudes toward Indians which took into account the indivisibility of human personality and cultural autonomy led to this study of Indian personality and administration. It became a practical problem in applied social research for bringing about the improvement of human welfare and government by means of the findings of science. It necessarily involved specialists from many disciplines, as well as Indian and non-Indian members of the reservations studied, thus being in the main an action-research project. The Indian tribes involved in the experimental groups were from Navaho, Sioux, Papago, and Hopi tribes. They represented a total population of about eighty thousand out of some three hundred thousand reservation Indians in the United States proper.

The research results indicate . . . that the work of the various Indian Service divisions . . . is effective to the extent that such services are integrated at the local community level with Indian patterns of culture, personality, and reactions to white pressures (page 163).

Individuals deeply concerned about the welfare of our one billion population of Indian pre-literate, pre-industrial peoples will envision a brighter future for them after studying this report. They will have gained well-organized, engrossing information from a multi-science depth inquiry, and a new respect for social-science research.

MARY JANE LOOMIS

KORNITZER, MARGARET. *Child Adoption in the Modern World*. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1952. xi+403 pp.

It is apparent that the author has attempted to describe in an objective manner current views about adoption in the British Commonwealth, emphasizing the details of the practice in England. Every aspect of a most complicated subject is presented, including interesting knowledge about the cultural aspects of adoption in the many corners of the world. Chapters XXIII and XXVI present a British interpretation of practice and philosophy in the United States which we should read very thoughtfully.

This book reflects less emotional reaction on the part of the author than most books now available on adoption, which should make it very useful to the reader who desires an objective understanding of the complexities of the subject.

The size of the book illustrates the observation that "the strange thing about adoption work is that every year it presents more and more problems so that what began as a simple act of kindness or mercy now requires the writing of heavy books" (page 156).

The author sets forth her philosophy in the statement that "what is best for the child in each individual case . . . comes in front of everything else" (page 12), and "it has become a principle of social science that a child gains so much even from a bad home that it should not be taken away from it until every other expedient has failed" (page 156).

RALPH C. BENNETT

1 1 1

The Preparation and Experience of Ohio City Superintendents

[Continued from page 201]

The median salary of the present city superintendents is \$7,188. There seems to be little relationship between the amount of salary and the total years of professional experience accumulated. However, there is a rather definite and positive relationship between the amount of salary received by the superintendent and the total pupil enrollment of the high-school district. Ohio city superintendents holding Doctors' degrees are generally found in the larger city school districts, and, on the average, receive considerably more salary than the superintendents without the Ph. D. or Ed. D. degree. The median salary for superintendents holding the Doctor's degree is \$9,500.

The rate of turnover among city superintendents is rela-

tively low (especially in comparison with the executive headship), being approximately 7 per cent annually over the past three years. The average tenure of the superintendents in their present position is approximately nine years, but this varies according to the size of the school district. Tenure seems to be longer in the smaller city school districts.

Of the 131 superintendents, 94.6 per cent held the superintendent-type certificate, either permanent or professional grade. Six of the superintendents held some type of life certificate, and one held the professional high-school principal's certificate. In general, the existing certification standards for Ohio city superintendents appear to be very well maintained by the State Department of Education and are being complied with by the superintendents.

[Vol. XXXII, No. 8]

The Teacher's Job and His Training for It

[Continued from page 216]

According to the announcement, the project is designed to answer such questions as "Are prospective teachers receiving adequate professional training today? Should they be required to take more courses in pedagogy and psychology or should they concentrate more in academic subjects?" The second of these questions is not one that is likely to lead to the most fruitful inquiry. It assumes that if there is need for better professional training, the way to get it is to require teachers "to take more courses in pedagogy and psychology," or to "concentrate more in academic subjects." This question ignores the possibility of qualitative rather than quantitative improvement of teacher education in both the academic and professional areas. It disregards the possibility of improving programs through the development of seminars and workshops organized around teachers' problems, through the more effective use of field experience, and so on. The questions should be stated in some such form as this: What improvements are needed in the academic and pedagogical education of teachers? How can teacher-education programs be modified so as to bring these about?

These, however, are minor reservations. We shall expect far-reaching results from the study.

R. H. E.

Educational Research Bulletin

DECEMBER 9, 1953

Vol. XXXII, No. 9

Bureau of Educational Research Annual Report, December, 1953

By ARTHUR W. FOSHAY

THIS year an attempt is being made to draw together the various divisional reports of the Bureau of Educational Research into a single statement. Those who wish more detailed information than is offered here may have it upon request.

THE Bureau of Educational Research is large and heterogeneous. It is viewed in different ways according to one's professional position. Some Ohio school superintendents know only of the Bureau's Survey Division. Some professors of education know only of the EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN. Other people know of the Bureau through the School of the Air, or through the annual Institute for Education by Radio-Television. On this campus, some of the professors know of the Bureau chiefly through the Teaching Aids Laboratory. (Readers of earlier annual reports of this Bureau are aware of the fact that it exists in ten divisions, through some of which there are extensive field services operated, and through others of which there are publications and research projects developed.) Here are the divisions of the Bureau of Educational Research, with brief descriptions of what is being carried on within them.

Appointments Division: JOHN NIEDERHAUSER, MARGARET VESEY

This is the University's agency for teacher placement. Through this division, a large number of elementary-school, secondary-school, and college teachers are directed to employing agencies each year. School administrators of all kinds are also employed through this service.

It is a basic policy of this division that its service is rendered to the

employing agency, not primarily to the prospective employee. The annual report of this division has become a basic document in the continuing study of educational manpower in the state of Ohio.

Curriculum Division: EDGAR DALE, ROBERT KILBOURN

This office publishes the monthly *News Letter* on motion pictures, radio, and other instructional aids. Mr. Dale is widely known as the author of *Audio-Visual Methods of Instruction*; the Dale-Chall Readability Formula is in wide use, and a steady stream of consultation on its use is offered through this division.

Editorial Division: ROSCOE H. ECKELBERRY, JOSEPHINE MACLATCHY

This is the division that handles the publications of the Bureau of Educational Research. The EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN is published nine times a year, and the *Journal of Higher Education*, while not a Bureau publication, is edited through this division. In addition, Bureau monographs and pamphlets are prepared for publication by the Editorial Division.

Evaluation Division: W. R. FLESHER, MARIE A. FLESHER

The evaluative sections of school surveys are developed in this division, which also distributes the "Ohio Teaching Record." In addition, several research studies are under development in this division.

Reference Library: RUTH SEEGER

The Reference Library of the Bureau of Educational Research is a repository of educational-research materials of all kinds. Since many of these materials are fugitive in nature, the fact that the Reference Library has been collecting them since 1922 has made it one of the best collections of basic educational-research material in the country. The Library serves faculty members and graduate students of this University; a librarian also sends out bibliographies of educational research upon request.

The Ohio School of the Air: MARGARET TYLER, MARION RENICK

The Ohio School of the Air prepares and arranges for the broadcasting of eight 15-minute educational radio programs each week during the academic year, over Station WOSU. Some of these programs are also recorded on tape and used by other educational radio stations in Ohio and elsewhere in the United States. Manuals to accompany these programs are issued in large numbers to teachers in this state.

Personnel Division: ROSS L. MOONEY

The Mooney Problem Check Lists have achieved wide acceptance in the country as a whole. They were developed within the Bureau of

Educational Research but are now published commercially. During recent years, Mr. Mooney has been developing a series of studies of creativity, in association with a national group devoted to the same purpose.

Survey Division: JOHN H. HERRICK, M. J. CONRAD, E. B. SESSIONS

The Survey Division is widely known for a large number of building and comprehensive surveys conducted both in and out of the state of Ohio. In addition, seven annual studies of various aspects of educational finance in Ohio are published through this division. Currently, the demand for building surveys is running ahead of the capacity of this division.¹

Teaching Aids Laboratory: NORMAN WOELFEL, CATHARINE WILLIAMS, HAZEL GIBBONY

The Teaching Aids Laboratory conducts several services and inquiries. The Film Library and Equipment Pool for the University provide the projection service for the campus. The Recording Studio for the University, the Curriculum Materials Center for the College of Education, and the Chart and Graph Service of the University are all located in this division. In recent years the Teaching Aids Laboratory has published a number of widely used film strips, as well as pamphlets on instructional materials.

The Institute for Education by Radio-Television: I. KEITH TYLER

The annual Institute for Education by Radio-Television takes place in Columbus in April each year. At this Institute, the widely known "Ohio State Awards" are given to broadcasters whose work in educational radio or educational television is judged meritorious by a nationwide jury. The meeting of the Institute occupies three days, the program consisting of discussions and major addresses on problems and procedures in educational broadcasting. The proceedings of each year's conference are published in a volume entitled *Education on the Air*. In addition to conducting this Institute, Mr. Tyler serves nationally as a consultant in educational broadcasting and teaches a number of courses in this field.

DURING the past year, certain trends in the work of the Bureau of Educational Research have begun to appear, and certain kinds of activity have remained prominent. Let us consider these.

The Bureau of Educational Research has always been "ori-

¹ See "The Survey Division: a Special Report," EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN, XXXII (May 13, 1953), pp. 132-34.

ented to the field," as we like to say. The activities of the Survey Division are a case in point. During the twelve-month period ending September 30, 1953, requests for assistance were received from 78 Ohio school districts by the Survey Division. The Division was able to meet only 60 per cent of these requests with some kind of assistance since its calendar was filled by October 30, 1952. (The same thing is true this year; by October 30, it was impossible for the Survey Division to promise any more service to be completed during the academic year.)

Other kinds of field work have also been carried forward this year. Mr. Flesher has worked with three city school districts in Ohio in the development or refinement of means for selecting administrative officers. He and Mrs. Flesher have conducted a workshop in Steubenville which has taken on some of the aspects of field research during the current year. In addition, Mr. Flesher has taken part in the affairs of the Ohio Association of School Administrators as chairman of their Research Committee; he has, in addition, worked with a group of administrators and University representatives to the end that plans are being laid for a broader dissemination in Ohio of research done in local Ohio schools.

The Ohio School of the Air is, of course, a field service. We are seeking to broaden this area of field service through experimentation with programs in educational television. At present, two such programs are under development, and broadcasts will probably begin in the Columbus area in mid-February. This project is under the leadership of Keith Tyler.

The Appointments Division of the Bureau is another field service. This year, requests for its service have increased 20 per cent, though the staff of the Division has remained the same size.

OUR emphasis on field work is as old as the Bureau. There is a new trend emerging which should be reported at this time. The Bureau of Educational Research is seeking now to develop self-help approaches and materials for use in the field. In a sense, the tests and other publications of the Bureau that have appeared since its beginning may be thought of as serving this "self-help" purpose. However, we seek rather specifically to increase this kind of activity. Two of our present efforts will illustrate this trend.

The first is the development of manuals to be used in deter-

mining local building needs. One of these, by Mr. Conrad, is to be published very shortly. This manual will assist a local school administrator to determine the present capacity of an existing secondary-school building, to the end that additions to the building may be planned more intelligently. A second manual, by Mr. Herrick, will allow the local school administrator to gather information basic to a building survey of a school district.

Certain work being carried on in Steubenville by Mr. and Mrs. Flesher, in Delaware by Mr. Woelfel, Mr. Dale, and Mr. Foshay, and in Bexley by Mr. Foshay, may also be viewed as an attempt to increase the self-help aspect of our work. Like educational consultants and researchers in other universities, this Bureau is on the brink of a major new development. We are trying to find out how to build a research approach to the solution of school problems into the continuing activity of the school system. This can be stated as an hypothesis: In the degree that the leadership of a school system can state its goal, as hypotheses to be tested through the gathering of evidence, its progress will be sure and unfaltering. A great deal has changed in the American educational scene over the past fifty years. However, some changes have been unwise, some have been ill-timed, some have not been adequately tested. To the extent that school systems can experiment with changes, rather than merely institute them, we can expect that the changes made will follow the method of intelligence. We can expect, too, that some irrational resistance to certain kinds of desirable educational change will diminish.

This is what the field-research idea is about. If we can develop with local school systems some uncomplicated ways of designing tests of action to be undertaken, and if we can disseminate these research processes widely, we can expect local school systems to be less vulnerable to some kinds of attack, to be less doctrinaire, and in general to be able to offer the facts in support of changes they wish to make.

THE members of the Bureau Staff have over the years been constant participants in national educational affairs. Currently, members of the Bureau Staff hold office or have major responsibilities in the following national organizations: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Fund for Adult Education, Adult Education Association, American Asso-

ciation of School Administrators, Executive Committee of the National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, Planning Committee of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, Research Committee of the Association of School Business Officials, National Council of Kappa Phi Kappa, National Association of Educational Broadcasters, National Institutional Teacher Placement Association, Department of Audio-Visual Education, National Society for the Study of Education. In addition, various members of the Staff have close continuing relationships with Unesco, the Air Force, and the Agricultural Extension Service in Washington. The Bureau's involvement in national professional affairs approaches saturation. However, we expect to continue this kind of association.

In state affairs, the members of the Bureau Staff have continued their close association. For many years, members of this Staff have been very active in the Ohio Association of School Administrators, the Ohio Education Association, the Ohio Secondary School Principals' Association, the Ohio Association for Childhood Education. The director of the Bureau has recently become closely associated with the Ohio Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. The Bureau of Educational Research contributed resources in co-operation with the Ohio Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development to a Conference on Action Research held at Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, in July, 1953; the director is also chairman of the Committee on Action Research of this Association. Recently, the Bureau sponsored a small conference on action research attended by professors of education in central and southwestern Ohio, at Columbus.

DURING the year ending October 30, 1953, plans were made for an increased amount of publication by the Bureau. The EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN continued to be distributed to school officials in Ohio and to others throughout the country without charge. The current mailing list of this BULLETIN includes 6,800 names. The BULLETIN is kept on file in virtually every professional library in the United States, and the articles published in it are further circulated through reprints and citations. *The Journal of Higher Education*, too, continued to appear during the past year. It should be empha-

sized that the *Journal* is not a publication of the College of Education or the Bureau of Educational Research. It is an independent national magazine in its field. Its sole relationship to this Bureau exists because Mr. Eckelberry and Miss MacLatchy edit the magazine. Increased publication costs have compelled a rise (to \$5.00) in the subscription rates of the *Journal* this year. This magazine stands alone in its field. There is no other publication that regularly seeks to deal directly with problems of higher education which is not sponsored by some national organization. The influence of the magazine is altogether out of proportion to its relatively small number of subscribers, more than a thousand of whom are libraries.

If present plans mature, two monographs will be published by the Bureau during the coming year, as well as the pamphlet by Mr. Conrad mentioned previously. The first of the monographs to be published will probably be "Readability: an Appraisal of Research and Application," by Jeanne S. Chall. This monograph provides some of the background material of the Dale-Chall readability formula. The second of these monographs, by Edwin A. Fleischman, Edwin F. Harris, and Harold E. Burt, is currently called "Leadership and Supervision." It is a fascinating study of the effect of a certain kind of in-service training on the persons who took it, and the conclusions have wide applicability to school-system in-service programs.

Films and film strips have been published at intervals by the Bureau through its Teaching Aids Laboratory. Currently, the following film strips, with manuals, are available:

- How to Keep Your Bulletin Board Alive
- Making Teaching Effective
- Materials for the Teaching of Arithmetic
- Personal Problems of Adolescent Youth
- Simplified Film Strip Production
- World Affairs Are Your Affairs

IN RECENT years, the demand for Bureau services has grown rapidly. This increased demand is, of course, flattering. In most cases, the Bureau services were initiated by members of the Bureau Staff, and it is naturally a matter of pride to them to find that the services have proved their value and that the demand for them is growing.

The very fact of their success, however, has now presented us with a problem that exists in virtually every division of the Bureau in which an attempt is made to render direct service. For example, the Appointments Division performed 7,828 services of all kinds last year; this year it performed 9,521, with the same staff. The Survey Division received 40 per cent more requests for service this year than it could act on. The demand for manuals from the School of the Air has risen to the point at which it is no longer possible for them to be distributed without charge. The bill is simply too large for our budget. The demand for projection service on the campus and for other services of the Teaching Aids Laboratory has reached the point where the Bureau budget can no longer support these services and it has been necessary to evolve a scheme of charges for some of them. The very success of the Dale-Chall readability formula has produced such a flood of correspondence through Mr. Dale's office that letters concerning this one topic alone occupy a substantial portion of one secretary's time, not to mention the time devoted to them by Mr. Dale.

Everyone knows that the more useful you are, the more you are used. We have come up against the problem this year of having to learn to say "no" to persons whom we have never refused before. The decision to say "no" has been forced upon us; we have had to say it, with great reluctance.

The amount of service we can offer is restricted partly because of a slightly reduced operating budget, partly because of inflation. If a limit had not been forced upon us by budgetary problems, we should nevertheless have had to draw some sort of line, because the Bureau has another function that demands uncommitted time.

THIS other function is, of course, research. The Bureau of Educational Research would be failing to discharge its obligations if its members did not do educational research. It takes much time and effort to develop a research idea. Some time has to be spent exploring blind alleys. A great deal of time has to be spent discovering whether a given idea will stand close examination. In recent years, members of the Bureau Staff have begun to find service obligations crowding out this necessary time. Accordingly, this year and in the years immediately ahead, we are making efforts so to design our work as to

permit time for thinking. It will be of interest to note a few of the current research projects of the Bureau. Some of these have already been mentioned.

The development of some educational television broadcasts

The development of a bibliography of attacks on the schools

The development of some generalizations about rendering abstract ideas into graphic form

The development of a manual to aid local school administrators in the gathering of basic survey data

The development of two chapters, on mass media and education, of a new yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education

The development of a theory of the creative person, ultimately to be applied to a reformulation of graduate work

A nation-wide inquiry regarding demonstrated economies in school-building design and construction

A study of the vocabularies of the published primary readers

Others could be added. These will illustrate the variety and extensiveness of the inquiries presently under way in the Bureau of Educational Research. How many of these will be brought to a successful conclusion cannot be predicted. It is of the essence of a research bureau that there be a constant development of new research projects—a kind of ferment of ideas.

From all of these comments, it is possible to deduce what it is like to be a member of the Bureau of Educational Research. This Staff is a group that constantly attempts to think at the frontier of thinking, to act at the level of the unknown. Such a position is uncomfortable by definition. Research and creative service are exacting for the individual precisely in the degree that they are significant. Much of the work that is done goes unnoticed and unappreciated—and in this the Bureau Staff is like any other educational staff. To be a member of the Bureau of Educational Research Staff means that one constantly questions the obvious and seeks to discover what new problems should be thought about. It is no easy thing to do.

But the rewards, when one achieves them, are magnificent. The satisfaction of achieving something new and good makes the long journey of discovery eminently worth while. These satisfactions are among the greatest in the educational enterprise, and they make membership in the Bureau of Educational Research what it is.

Kindergarten Children's Familiarity with Measurement

By PAUL E. SPAYDE

DURING the spring of 1951, the teachers in the kindergartens of Lakewood, Ohio, asked some of their pupils a number of questions regarding measures commonly used in everyday living, to determine the children's familiarity with them. To guide the conversations with the children and to assure as much similarity as possible in the interviews, the teachers asked the questions given in "A Test of the Pre-School Child's Familiarity with Measurement."¹

An item from the test will show its form. In order to find out whether the child knows the time of day—morning, night, afternoon, or noon—the following questions are given:

What time of day is it when you get up and eat breakfast?

When is it dark outside?

or When do you go to bed?

When do you have lots of time to play?

or When do you (or little children) take your nap (their naps)?

or (for children who attend kindergarten in the afternoon) When do you come to kindergarten?

What time comes between morning and afternoon?

or What do we call the middle of the day?

or When does your mother come to take you home from kindergarten?

The devisers of the test attempted to arrange the questions in groups of descending difficulty in order to obtain an answer if the child is familiar with the measure. If the child answers the first of the two or three questions arranged to elicit a response, the others preceded by *or* are not asked. Since the teacher records the answers given by a pupil on a test form bearing his name, the instrument might better be called a pupil's interview record. No numerical score is computed from the completed form, but an inventory of the child's familiarity with the various measures mentioned during the interview can be compiled from it.

¹ MacLachy, Josephine H. "A Test of the Pre-School Child's Familiarity with Measurement," *EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN*, XXIX (November 15, 1950), pp.207-208, 222.

SINCE we wished to obtain findings which would be characteristic of all the kindergartens in the school system, the teachers were asked not to limit their interviews to the best or the poorest pupils but to select representative samplings of their groups. In response to this request, completed records of teachers' interviews with 108 kindergarten children in the ten elementary schools of Lakewood were received. The percentages which follow show the portions of this group which correctly identified the various measures of time:

Time—	Correct Responses Per Cent	Time—	Correct Responses Per Cent
Parts of the Day—		How many months in a year?	16
Morning	94	What year is this?	23
Night	97	Show on calendar	22
Afternoon	92	Named his birthday month.	61
Noon	25	Named other months	4
Days of the Week—		Named months in order..	4
Sunday	94	Seasons—	
Non-school days	85	Current season	69
All days	67	Named and described:	
Named in order.....	63	Winter	84
Today	59	Spring	88
The Calendar—		Summer	85
What is it?	91	Fall or autumn	67
What does it tell?	84	Specific Times—	
Show a day	94	Named clock or watch	96
Show a week	50	What does it tell?	97
Show a month	33	What time—(clock face used)?	
How many days in a week? ..	55	8:00	47
Counted	37	12:00	52
How many weeks in a month?	32	6:00	55
Counted	27	4:30	14

In interpreting results it will perhaps be best to refer to the questions in the test itself. For example, 95 per cent of the 108 children gave the response, "morning," to the question, "What part of the day is it when you get up and eat breakfast?" Only one-fourth of the pupils gave the response "noon" to one of the four questions designed to get that response. The question, "What days don't you go to kindergarten?" elicited the following: "Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays." It would seem that more than 59 per cent ought to know the name of the current day of the week. Whether or not kindergarten children need to know the months of the year is open to question; however, answers to questions about the calendar lead one to believe that more attention should be given to an understanding of *day, week, month, and year*.

The responses to the question, "How do you know when

it is winter (spring, summer, fall, or autumn)?” are most interesting. All comments about winter refer to cold and snow. A great variety of remarks about spring were made, such as “Easter comes,” “buds come out,” “rake leaves—planting,” “grass and leaves start to grow,” “pretty flowers come out,” “it gets warmer,” “everything starts growing,” and many others. The fact that the test was given in the spring may be the reason for a much greater variety of responses to this season. In any event it does indicate that understanding of time concepts can be built upon current experiences.

IN THE part of the test designed to sound the children’s familiarity with liquid measure, he is shown milk bottles and jars of quart, pint, and half-pint sizes, and asked to tell what they are called. To elicit the word *gallons*, the following question is asked: “What does your father say to the man at the filling station when he buys gas?” The percentages for this part of the test follow:

	Per Cent		Per Cent
Quart milk bottle	91	Pint jar	24
Quart	60	Gallon (used in response to question)	35
Pint	23	“Fill her up”	7
Half-pint	18	“Give me \$— worth”	6
Quart jar	26		

With the exception of quart as related to milk, there appears to be little understanding of liquid measure. This is not surprising since in the Special Arithmetic Test given to the higher grades about half of the fourth-grade pupils knew there are four regular glasses of milk in a quart. Practical experience with these measures in a classroom should help pupils to better understand liquid measures.

The questions arranged to show familiarity with *avoirdupois* weight were: “What does your mother say to the man in the store when she wants some meat? How does the man in the store know how much meat to give your mother?” In answering the first question, 50 per cent of the children used the word *pound*; in answering the second, 51 per cent used *weigh*, and 43 per cent *scales*. Several children pointed out that the price is on the label and that it is unnecessary to ask a man for meat. Apparently the concepts of *pound*, *weigh*, and *scales* are little more than words at this stage of development.

Most of the children called a foot rule and a yardstick a *ruler*, and most of them said they were used to measure things. Small percentages named the foot rule and yardstick

and knew the number of inches in each, as the figures show:

	Per Cent		Per Cent
Show me an inch	38	Foot rule	9
Yardstick (36 inches)	5	Counted	50
Counted	31		

Answering the question "How does your father know how fast the car is going?" or "How fast does your father drive?" the word *speedometer* was used by 10 per cent of the children, and the phrase "2— miles an hour" was used by 11 per cent.

In the measures of groups of like things *pair* was more familiar than *dozen*:

Dozen—	Per Cent
How does your mother buy eggs?	28
How many in a dozen?	30
How many in a half-dozen?	18
Pair (used in relation to shoes)	77
How many in a pair?	87
Named other pairs	69

Most of the kindergarten children knew the names of the pieces of money, as the following percentages show:

	Per Cent		Per Cent
Penny	96	Quarter	69
Nickel	80	Fifty-cent piece	49
Dime	80	Dollar	89

They did not, however, have a very clear idea of the relative values of the nickel and dime:

Nickel = 5 pennies	40
Dime = 10 pennies	29
Dime = 2 nickels	29

The item, "Which will buy more candy [showing (1) a penny and a nickel and (2) a nickel and a dime]?" clearly had a dual meaning for the teachers. Some interpreted the question to ask whether a penny or a nickel will buy more, while others interpreted it to mean whether a penny and a nickel will buy more than a nickel and a dime. The results were not reliable.

More than half of the children could identify a thermometer and tell that it was used to measure "hot" and "cold." The answers to the other questions in the group seeking the words *degrees*, *tons*, *gas meter*, and *watts*, are not subject to easy quantitative analysis. They do suggest to teachers, however, the many examples that may be used to give children a better understanding in the area of measurement.

The test gives two opportunities for evidence of the child's understanding of the use of measures. He is asked to find out how many cups of water are needed to fill a pint pitcher. Forty-six of the kindergarten children did this without help

and found that 2 cups filled the pitcher (2 cups = 1 pint). In the second instance, after the child has watched the teacher mark his height on the wall, he is given a yardstick and a foot rule to find out how tall he is. Seventeen per cent noticed the 36 inches in the yardstick and counted the inches needed on the foot rule, starting with 37; 9 per cent understood the directions but counted all the inches, starting at 1.

THE results in Lakewood generally parallel the findings reported by one of the authors of the test based on data obtained from questioning 73 three-, four-, and five-year-olds.

The results show that the children's familiarity with measures of time is more inclusive and more meaningful than their familiarity with the conventional measures. They have learned to notice changes in their natural environment and to identify them by the terms used. Although one older three-year-old remembered summer in November, none of the older threes seemed to remember differences in seasons or to impute any significance to changes in their clothing or in their outdoor surroundings. Older fours and five were quite familiar with the seasons. *Noon* is later identified than *morning*, *night*, or *afternoon*. Of course, they have still to learn the exact meaning of 12:00 noon.

What do we conclude from all this? Simply that out of "the big, booming, buzzing confusion" of sounds which surrounded them in their infancy, these pre-school children have heard these words and remember the context in which they were used. Even the little girl who ran "two miles an hour" did not really understand what she said, but she had the beginning of understanding. She related the two terms properly, and she understood the context from which she got them. Not all these children have listened with equally good effect. According to several of them: Mother asked the grocer for "some meat." Father asked the filling station man for "some gas." More often, however, the children listened and heard *pounds* and *gallons*.

What these children have acquired is the terms used, and in some cases, notably time, their understanding has content. Their familiarity with *quart*, *gallon*, *pounds*, *coins*, and the like, has no real content. They simply recall words or phrases in their habitual context.²

It is from these beginnings that mature concepts and understandings are built. Knowing when children are mature enough to go from mere words to real meanings should be most helpful to teachers. Meaningful experiences at the appropriate stage in their development are the essence of a good readiness program.

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² MacLatchy, Josephine H. "The Pre-School Child's Familiarity with Measurement," *Education*, LXXI (April, 1951), p. 4.

The Factor of Coincidence in Personality Formation

By JOHN BAUER

TO EXPLAIN the machinery of human behavior, many monistic theories have been brought together. In seeking to establish what determines human behavior, geneticists have emphasized hereditary potentials, sociologists have stressed the importance of social institutions under the heading of "environment," psychoanalysts have paid special attention to individual experiences (the Freudians especially to early experience, some of the neo-Freudians also to later experiences). The unprejudiced student of human nature must take all of these viewpoints into consideration. Many thinking persons have long ago concluded that no monistic theory, *per se*, could hold the key to causality. Such thinkers have taken refuge in the theory of heredity-environment interaction and have broadened the simple adage that "heredity determines what you can do, environment what you do do." Within this theory of interactionism emphasis is then attached to the genetic incipency and to the prodromal development period, tinged with inner-psychodynamics but tainted with outer sociological stimuli factors.

The writer would like to introduce a factor which heretofore has been scarcely acknowledged. This factor deals with the theory of uniquely personal experience which takes into account trivial incidents, coincidence, and accidents as molders of personality organization and as deflectors of previously manifested response behavior. Psychoanalytic therapeuticians would certainly agree that in the analysis of any given individual such trivia as would enter into the "uniquely personal experience theory" would have to be investigated thoroughly.

The writer had the unusual experience of being able to investigate the total life history of one pair of monozygotic twins. At the time of the investigation, which was longitudinal, these monozygotic male twins were twenty years of age and sophomore students at a municipal college. They were investigated thoroughly from the viewpoint of developmental, medical, educational, sociological, and psychometric assessment.

THE developmental, medical, educational, and sociological data were such that they became indistinguishable for the twins involved. It might be noted parenthetically that these monozygotic twins, undifferentiable in looks and behavior, always attended the same classes, schools, and organizations together—hence it can safely be said that the social institutions they came in contact with were similar for them. The fact that in the long run they responded dissimilarly to similar social institutions will be touched on later.

Likewise, the psychometric data were consistently similar for both boys until projective tests were administered. These revealed, dormant behind a façade of identical manifest behavior, meaningful differences in personality organization. The differences which appeared upon projective assessment were substantiated by equally strong differences which emerged from self-expressive material such as autobiographies, compositions, art work, and tape recordings.

When initially undertaken, the study was entitled "Similarities and Differences in the Personality and Manifest Behavior of One Set of Monozygotic Twins—a Depth Study Involving Interacting Organic, Developmental, Psychodynamic, and Environmental Factors as They Pertain to the Total Life History." In this study the similarities found between these identical twins could very well be explained by the shaping forces of social institutions (that is, their demands and their inhibiting influence), by reference to upper and lower levels set by genetic endowment, or by reference to the psychoanalytic theory of early childhood development.

The differences found in the data relating to personality organization could be explained by no single aforementioned theory. To account for them it was necessary to focus on the rôle of trivial incidents, coincidence, and accidents, each of which seemed to constitute at the time of its occurrence a uniquely personal experience in the "inner life of each twin." Furthermore, each of these trivia seemed to deflect the twins further from identity in the development of personality structure.

IT HAS already been stated—and it would require too much space to support this contention—that these twins in essence underwent similar experiences throughout their period of growth. However, a number of exceptions to this statement

must be granted. For instance, the mother of the twins (who had wanted neither of these last-born children) called both by the name of the last-born from their early infancy, and conditioned the boys to respond to the one name. Early in life, the first-born twin would attach himself to his younger brother and depend on him for leadership, decisions, and rescues. Seemingly, the mother's conditioning produced in the first-born twin the feeling of being an integral and inseparable part of his brother. This clinging dependency, in turn, set off a chain reaction as the twins grew older. The second-born, both the leader and the crutch, seemed to tire of his rôle, and to yearn for an individuality and independence of his own. The belief that the mother tended to prefer the second-born can be reinforced by a variety of examples. Thus, for instance, though both boys were identified in infancy by colored ribbons, the mother gave the first-born an enema twice. She relates this episode as an accident.

Both the older sister and the older brother, who served as auxiliary parent images in the home constellation during the twins' developmental period, at first preferred the last-born twin because of his more quiescent behavior; but as the twins grew older, they shifted their preferences to the first-born.

Though both boys have a concept of woman tinged with domineering negativism (the father had died when they were two and the mother had had to be father as well as mother), the twin who underwent an experience of heterosexual seduction at the age of nine or ten (while both were seeing the same movie from adjoining seats) developed a more damaging reaction toward women which led to persistent sexual exploration and conquest. Yet both twins in manifest preferences looked for the same qualities in a woman. The first-born twin, who was snapped at by a dog at the age of four, shortly thereafter experienced dreams in which a dog bit parts off him, and later on developed marked fear of mutilation and castration.

A variety of minor mishaps seemed to occur in the life of the last-born twin. There was evidence that early in life outside stimuli (such as the experience of being hit by a swing) were regarded as a threat. Apparently, he coped with dangers of this type by an autism manifested as magic (all came out well in the end since he was still alive). This tendency to assign quasi-magical endings to stress situations still exists at the age

of twenty. Obviously, one cannot make the assertion that being hit by a swing was the sole causal factor in this type of resolution-behavior. However, were an observer to recall that during early life this twin possessed unchallenged status in human relationships, it would seem a warranted inference that the minor mishaps he experienced appeared more serious in his totality of perception than like experiences which his older brother underwent during early infancy.

The death of the next older brother in the Second World War, when these twins were fifteen years old, was an identical experience for both in terms of stimulus but a different experience in terms of response. Thus, one twin commented that "he was lucky in dying quickly," as if privately relieved that a hero figure of a competitive nature had been removed from the family constellation. The other twin romantically over-fantasied his relationship to his brother, making him a hero, and frequently introducing into high-school compositions nostalgic references to his brother's looks, behavior, and death.

The writer could go on *ad infinitum* about this type of trivia but believes he has made his point. When sociologists speak of environmental influences, they take into consideration the family background, the home—its economic circumstances, standards of conduct, aspiration levels, moral values, intra-affectional ties—the neighborhood, and other institutions such as the school, the church, the club, and so on, invariably considering these social institutions only as they are assessed by the investigator. Hardly ever do they carry the study further, as this writer would imply they should, to investigate the psychic response of the individual to these outer stimuli and, beyond that, to attempt as scientifically as possible to substantiate the reality of this inner response to life, and the accuracy with which it is reported to the interviewer by the subject under investigation. Devices will yet have to be developed by sociologists to corroborate more accurately the unique personal experience and its inner psychic meaning for the individual.

THE findings of this type of study emphasize the importance of a combination of theories in assessing the growth and development of individuals. It becomes evident that the genetic equality of this single pair of twins explains a great deal about the similarity of their growth and development. We have seen evidence marshaled of great similarity in appearance, in intel-

lectual functioning, in physical co-ordination, and in a wide variety of other specified characteristics. All of this points to the need for teachers and counselors to understand something of the biological development of mankind. Since such a large number and variety of qualities are held in common by monozygotic twins, it seems only reasonable to infer that heredity must play an important part in setting upper and lower limits to normal achievement in a culture like the one in which these twins were reared.

The evidence is equally emphatic in pointing to the importance of certain happenings in the early childhood of these twins. The so-called psychoanalytic theory helps to explain why certain kinds of problems presented themselves to both twins. It helps us to understand their preoccupation with certain kinds of emotional needs, and it explains why there is a great deal of similarity in the self-expressive materials. In other words, the data reassure us that a deep understanding of the growth and development of children depends, in part, upon an intimate knowledge of the early years of life.

The so-called manifest behavior of these twins is so similar that we feel compelled to explain it by the influence which social institutions have upon the lives of everyone in the culture. If teachers and counselors are to understand similarities and differences in the growth and development of children, these data suggest strongly that participation in social institutions may be a focus of study. It seems only fair to add that inadequate attention has been paid to this theory. Social institutions not only require certain kinds of behavior and motivation, they also inhibit certain attempts of personalities to express themselves in ways that run counter to tradition. In other words, social institutions also are life-shaping influences. Those who would understand the growth and development of children must also understand how social institutions shape personality.

IN ALL of our special fields of inquiry, there has been a tendency to systematize, to schematize, and to explain consequences in terms of absurdly oversimplified causal factors. The controlling aim has been to produce a consistent system rather than an adequate explanation for diverse personality functioning. In almost every single system, the rôle of accident, or coincidence, or repetition of trivial incident has been minimized. The results of the present inquiry suggest that these factors are

of tremendous importance in the assessment of the meaning of activity. The inner life, that organization of personality which attaches meaning to outward participation, seems to be significantly influenced by these so-called trivial events.

If this inference is accepted as a basis for improvement in the preparation of teachers and guidance workers, it may be suggested that individuals need a method of sizing up day-by-day life situations, no matter how trivial. The individual who is being guided or taught needs a resource which will allow him to interpret accident and incident and coincidence as these arise in his life. He evidently needs a concept of self and a flexible method for interpreting that self in varying situations. Answers as such will not do, because incidents themselves vary so much and have such serious consequences. In order to prepare the individual, we must help him in such a way that he can meet these new situations with the best guarantee of maintaining social and emotional homeostasis.

A final remark with respect to the implications of this study. The evidence is clear that teachers and guidance workers who rely upon one or another of these theories in isolation are bound to be thwarted as they try to interpret the happenings of a complex life. It is the interaction of these theories that best explains the organization and functioning of personality. It would seem, therefore, that teachers and guidance workers should be helped to see these theories in relationship to each other, and taught how best to apply them in the effort to understand children, singly and in groups.

At present, we must conclude that man is probably too complex for any kind of research that is based upon an approach representing a single discipline. There is evidence that we have oversimplified the nature of man and his relationship to his environment. We have oversimplified environmental factors and we have attempted to understand a particular phase in isolation. Similarly, we have tended to oversimplify mental functions when our researches have been concentrated in an isolated way upon a particular kind of functioning personality. There is a great need for an integrated approach to the study of personality, especially that kind of study which would grant more permissiveness to the subject in expressing his feelings and ideas concerning the influences that seem to be affecting his own personality.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

Using Teacher Manpower

THE shortage of elementary-school teachers is bringing about a re-examination of the problem of providing adequate manpower for the schools. Two approaches are being used: first, recruiting more good persons; and second, utilizing more effectively the ones we have. The latter method is relatively new and merits careful consideration.

Last month we commented on the large-scale investigation of elementary-school teaching in Fairfield, Connecticut, which the Department of Education of Yale University is conducting with the support of the Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education. One phase of this study will be an analysis of teachers' duties to distinguish those that are professional from those that are subprofessional; the purpose here is to determine whether the current shortage of teachers can be alleviated by using teachers' aides to do nonprofessional work such as is done by nurses' aides in many hospitals.¹

Even more significant than the Yale-Fairfield study are the recommendations made by the recent Conference on the Utilization of Scientific and Professional Manpower held at Columbia University, October 7-11, under the auspices of the National Manpower Council. Sixty-six leaders in engineering, medicine, education, science, industry, government, and military service took part. It is significant that one of the three work groups into which the conference was divided dealt with teaching personnel; the other two were concerned with the engineering and medical fields.

The proceedings of the conference are to be published by the Columbia University Press. Meanwhile, we are dependent on a news release which presents the high lights of the conference. Sixteen persons from various types of positions constituted the work group on teaching personnel. The principal findings of this group, as reported in the news release, are as follows:

1. The lack of qualified teachers is particularly crucial at the present time when shortages of well qualified personnel are also being felt

¹"The Teacher's Job and His Training for It," EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN, XXXII (November 11, 1953), pp. 215-16, 224.

in many other professions. Other professions cannot expect to have a continuing supply of highly competent persons if public-school systems lack the qualified teachers necessary to provide good elementary-school education.

2. There are two ways of attacking the problem of teacher shortages: by increasing the number of qualified teachers or by using the present supply of teachers more effectively.

3. Nearly all professional educators agree that vigorous steps must be taken to attract a greater number of able young people into teaching as a career and to retain established teachers in the profession. Increases in teachers' salaries so that they will compare more favorably with those in other professions is a key measure. In addition, ways must be found to encourage the return of married women who have left the field.

4. There is less agreement among professional educators on the question of how the available supply of teachers can be more effectively used. Some hold that teachers are now utilized as effectively as possible and that no improvements are either feasible or desirable. Others, however, believe that significant gains can be made in the area of utilization. They take the position that radical improvements in the financial support for education are unlikely in the immediate future and that, consequently, there is no alternative but to make better use of the teaching personnel now available.

5. Among the ways of making better use of teacher time is to relieve the teacher of routine clerical tasks, such as keeping attendance records, and of certain disciplinary responsibilities, such as supervising study halls and lunchrooms. Subprofessional personnel can assume responsibilities of this kind. More ambitious use can also be made of student assistants. Films and television offer an opportunity for relieving the teacher of some work in classroom instruction so that he is freer to spend more time with individual pupils. Teacher teams composed of master teachers and professional assistants might make it possible for the same number of teachers to handle a greater number of students and even improve the quality of instruction.

6. Various ways of improving the utilization of teachers have been tried in different communities. One obvious need is for a clearinghouse arrangement through which educators could become acquainted with developments in other school systems.

7. Finally it seems clear that the problem of better teacher utilization has not yet been attacked in sufficient seriousness and vigor.

These recommendations merit extended comment, and will be discussed in the January issue of the BULLETIN.

R. H. E.

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